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THE HISTORY OF THE
CITY OF BOSTON
FROM 1630 TO 1800
BY
JOHN H. COLEMAN

The history of the city of Boston from 1630 to 1800 is a story of growth and development. It begins with the arrival of the first settlers in 1630, who found a small fishing village. Over the years, the city expanded its territory, and its population grew. The city became a center of commerce and industry, and it played a significant role in the American Revolution. The story of Boston is a story of the struggle for freedom and the pursuit of the American dream.

The city of Boston was founded in 1630 by a group of Puritan settlers. They came to the city to establish a new colony, and they found a small fishing village. The city grew rapidly, and it became a center of commerce and industry. The city played a significant role in the American Revolution, and it was the site of many important events. The city of Boston is a city of many firsts, and it has a rich and varied history.

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I. LYCURGUS, AND EDUCATION AMONG THE SPARTANS.

LYCURGUS.

LYCURGUS, the Spartan lawgiver, lived in the ninth century before Christ, the date commonly given him being B. C. 884. Upon the death of his brother, Polydectes, king of Sparta, he assumed the government as guardian of his son, Charilaus, the future king, then unborn, but private enmities soon forced him to self-exile and foreign travel. A residence in Crete where the Dorian customs were still in full force, revealed its influence upon him in his subsequent acts as lawgiver, and he is said to have brought with him from Ionia the poems of Homer, which were to become the common ground-work of civilization for all Greece. Recalled to Sparta to ward off the anarchy which threatened the State, he constructed a constitution, with the approval of the Delphic oracle, and obligated the citizens to its observance until his return from Delphi whither he was going to consult the god respecting its merits. The response being favorable, Lycurgus determined not to return, and is reported to have put an end to his life by starvation and to have caused his ashes to be thrown into the sea in order that the Spartans might never be able to bring them home and so free themselves from the vow which they had taken. Both in the laws of Lycurgus and in the so called "Lycurgan Constitution," his regulations respecting education hold a prominent place. But the principles of Spartan education were, no more than these laws, the invention of Lycurgus. Their origin is rather to be found in the traditional customs and practices of the Dorian race; to Lycurgus belongs the merit of having given them a permanent form, developed them in particular directions, and molded them, thus modified, into a well-considered, consistent system, conformable to the spirit of the State constitution. It can not, however, be doubted that many things, handed down under his name, are of later origin. But the fact that it is impossible to distinguish the early from the later productions is of little consequence, for through the con-

sistency of the system, these additions did but render previous principles more practical and better suited to present wants. The principal sources of our information respecting Spartan education are Xenophon and Plutarch, though many facts relating to it are found scattered through the writings of other Greek authors.*

EDUCATION AMONG THE SPARTANS.

The distinguishing characteristic of Spartan education was that it was, throughout, an institution of and for the State, determined in every particular by the designs, interests, and peculiarities of the State. Its object was not the improvement of the man as a man, by the general development and harmonious perfecting of his inherent capacities, but simply his training as a *Spartan citizen*; it was therefore a *political* system, its ideal of culture corresponding with its ideal of Spartan citizenship. So intimately related was it to the constitution of the State that no one was fully recognized as a citizen (*ὑπομνη*) that had not received this training, and on the other hand whoever had shared it, even though born a slave, was on that account entitled to admission among the Spartans as a new citizen (*νοσισμῶν*). The instruction of all was, therefore, without distinction; individual or special training was unknown. The nature of the claims which the State made upon the citizen determined what powers should be developed and trained, and what methods should be used, and in like manner also what propensities of the soul should be left undeveloped or kept under restraint. These claims required them to preserve the liberty of the State in its traditional constitutional form and to cherish the power of the State in its external relations. Limited in number—scarcely exceeding nine thousand in the most prosperous period of the nation's history—they had to maintain control over at least twice as many political minors, vassals, (the *πρόχοι*) and a far greater number of slaves, and at the same time to gain so commanding a position as to be able to defend themselves against the other differently constituted States, both Greek and barbarian. No citizen here was permitted to have an interest different from that of other citizens and of the whole; self must be lost, as it were, in the State; every one's powers must receive the highest possible tension, and every one must attain to the highest pitch of political excellence, which consisted, on the one hand, in the capacity to govern, as understood by the Spartans, and on the other hand, in military efficiency.

* The following summary is drawn from the manuals upon the antiquities of Greece, by Hermann, Schömann, Schwalbe, &c. Hermann has produced a valuable monograph upon the "Antiquities of Lacedæmon."

Children were considered the property of the State, and to the State belonged the decision whether they should be reared or put to death. As soon as born, the child was brought before the oldest members of the tribe to which the father belonged, and if found of faultless form and of a strong, healthy constitution, permission was given for its preservation; but if in any respect deformed or weak, it was at their command exposed in a certain glen of Mount Taygetus. The children remained only for six years under their mothers' charge, and their training during this time was conducted very carefully in accordance with prescribed rules. All tenderness was excluded; swaddling clothes were never used; the child was often bathed in wine, which was supposed to promote the robust development of bodies naturally strong; timid and fretful children were not permitted to grow up; and all were habituated at an early age to being left alone.

Their education, properly so called, commenced with the seventh year and was altogether a State matter. The chief control of it was intrusted to a special superintendent (the *παιδονόμος*;) whose office was one of high rank and who was elected from among the most esteemed of the old men. Under him were five directors (*Σίδου*) who directed and superintended the exercises of the boys. This system is seen to be especially characteristic when compared with the custom which prevailed among all other Greeks, of committing the care of children to slaves. Free men—thus thought the Spartans—must be reared by free men. But the efficiency of the best instructors is often frustrated by the quiet reaction of their co-educators, or as we are wont to say, by the influence of their surroundings. In Sparta, however, all unauthorized co-educators were removed and the boys came in contact with none at all—neither slaves nor strangers—but such as were obligated to exert a salutary influence upon them. They were under a *constant superintendence*. At the age of seven years they were received into the public institutions for education, where they were graded in a military manner according to their ages and divided into companies (*βόαι*, or *ἀγέλαι*) and these again into sections (*ἵλαι*.) This gathering of the boys together into one large community caused them to feel as members of one body, of a State organism having common interests. The leaders of the several divisions were chosen from the ablest of the young men (*ἐίπες*) and had the charge of the exercises of their divisions under the superintendence of the directors, and restrained all impropriety. But the education of the youth was a subject of *general* interest, and hence all citizens shared in it

and each was a representative of the director, with the same official rights. Some of the older citizens were probably always present during the exercises of the boys, in which case it would be their duty to coöperate in the execution of the spirit of the laws. By this means also a salutary feeling of regard was excited between the young and the old, for every citizen would look upon each boy as his own son, and the boys would see in every grown person, a father.

The principal means by which education in general was effected, were of the simplest nature—the *excitement of ambition*, and *punishment*. Scarcely even in the schools of the Jesuits has the feeling of ambition been employed in the service of education to such an extent as was the case in Sparta. The reason is evident; for the results of this method are most favorable, if regard be had not to the *moral* worth of the action, nor to the sentiment underlying it, nor to the relation of the actor to God, but merely to the value or rather the usefulness of the action to the community, and therefore, in Sparta, to the State. The endeavor after distinction above others (*αἰνῶ ἀριστεύειν καὶ ὑπερέσχεον ἑμμεναι ἄλλων*) was an inborn, national trait of every Greek, and in Sparta it was especially cherished. Ambition was with them the spur not merely in youth, but even to hoary old age. Honor, high honor awaited the good and the brave; shame and ignominy rested upon the evil and cowardly. But the love of honor was employed systematically in the cause of education. This ambitious feeling at different periods of age was made prominent even in the responsive singing at certain festivals. The example reported by Plutarch is indicative of this, where the old men sung,

"Once we were men, of strength and courage full,"

to which the men replied,

"Such now are we, come, prove us, if ye will,"

and the boys joined in with

"Yet time will show us better far than ye."

Moreover the exercises of the boys were always greeted with the applause or censure of the spectators, and to give these demonstrations a yet stronger effect, at the public games at which the adult youth exhibited their strength and dexterity, it was customary for the girls and maidens to sing songs of praise in honor of the victors and to receive the conquered with bitter mockery. The victors were crowned, according to the general Hellenic custom, the real prize consisting of the glory of victory, of which the sim-

ple crown was but a token. A still stronger ambition, perhaps, was exerted, at least in the masses, in the following manner. Those of the ablest youth were chosen as "Hippagretai," (ἵππαγρέται) each of whom again selected a hundred others, stating in each instance the reasons for his choice or rejection. It devolved now upon the rejected to establish their reputation again, if possible, by continued strife and competition with the chosen ones, who maintained their position only by showing themselves to be the ablest. For this reason both parties watched carefully for any weak point in their opponents, or for any offense against morals or the laws, that would expose them to disgrace. Hard battles were often fought between them in the ring, in which they were urged on by the spectators; but that their passions might not be carried too far and as a lesson in self-government, the combatants were required to cease the combat as soon as any citizen interfered and spoke the word. The relations of friendship, also, which existed between the older citizens and the youth as required by the laws, were taken advantage of as a spur to exertion, and it was considered a disgrace not to be chosen as the favorite of some older person. Where honor was thus esteemed, every reproach and disgrace must naturally have been felt so much the more keenly. Yet it fell inexorably upon all who showed signs of slothfulness or disregard of distinction, or acted in an effeminate or cowardly manner. As a second means of maintaining good discipline and as a motive for correct conduct and reformation, use was made of *punishment*. The chief form of punishment was by blows, though deprivation of food was resorted to in rare cases. Flogging played, indeed, a strong role in Sparta; it was considered indispensable in the formation of a frank, manly disposition, and was inflicted for the most diverse offenses, both small and great, but in very different degrees of severity. All the instructors had the most unlimited power of punishment, from the "paidonome" to the assistants among the youths, including also all the citizens. It was inflicted immediately upon the commission of the offense, but only by certain youths chosen for the purpose (μαστωφόροι,) who were always present with whips. Complaints on account of punishments received were never permitted, and if a boy complained at all to his father of having been handled too severely by any one, he was sure of the consolation of another sound beating. The elders also never permitted themselves to find fault with one of the εἰρηγες in presence of the boys, for carrying his punishment too far. This was always done in private that their authority might not be weakened and the full efficacy of punishment be preserved.

A distinction is always to be drawn between moral, physical or gymnastic, and intellectual culture. In the system of Spartan education the three in fact essentially exist, and in mutual intimate relation form the above described ideal of a training whose principles are drawn from politics. *Moral* culture is most generally controlled by its political importance, though noble ideas and important truths ever lie at its foundation; but, in truth, if Spartan virtues be measured by the standard of *true morality*, they will be found, as Augustine keenly yet truly remarked, to be but brilliant vices. The foundation of a civil morality was rightly considered to be a firm manly *will*. In this principle we may distinguish a negative and a positive side. The strength of the will depends upon man's power of self-government. In its negative aspect, it averts whatever restricts freedom and debases man to be the slave of any immoral influence; the positive side consists in the conformity of the individual will to a superior moral power—in its conformity to law. For the Spartans, this higher power was the law of the State, the will of the State; and in both directions Spartan education wrought its work excellently. The government of man over himself consists especially in the control of the spirit over the body; in this rests at least the moral liberty which ancient nations attained to. Control over the body consists, first of all, in control over its members so that he may employ them at will, and use them with safety to the full limit which nature allows, and this control is secured by a systematically carried out system of gymnastics, of which we will speak more fully further on. The consciousness of one's own strength depends upon confidence in one's control over his physical powers, and hence it is actually a physical requisite to a strong will. But it is of further force in holding under restraint the propensities, lusts, and passions of the body, in wholly restraining or duly moderating them. Of a like tendency is a habit of great simplicity in the wants of life, and sobriety in pleasures of every kind. But it seems to have been wholly incompatible with the Spartan character to give prominence to one's own personality and individuality. A modest, reserved manner on the part of the youth was strictly insisted upon and a becoming outward demeanor was secured by prescribed rules. We know that when they appeared upon the street, they held their hands within their cloaks and walked on in silence, looking neither to the right hand nor the left, but on the ground before them. "One would sooner expect a stone to speak or the eyes of a brazen statue to move, than to hear the voice of one of these Spartan boys or to catch a

look from his eyes; he is more modest than a girl that has been brought up in the privacy of home." Indeed, too great heed can not be paid to outward conduct. Experience teaches that between the outward character and the inner disposition there exists such a relation that the one calls forth the other, so that even the being accustomed to a demeanor corresponding to a modest feeling, will generate that very feeling. Wisely, therefore, are the habits of conduct commenced in earliest youth, even before their moral efficacy can be appreciable. In the same way we may estimate the importance of the regulation which forbade boys and youth to speak in the company of older men except in reply to questions; no kind of self-control is acquired or exercised with more difficulty than that which requires the repression of one's opinions; yet none is of more value in practical life. Individuality naturally asserts itself most strongly and makes itself most prominent in youth. Hence the Spartans intrusted to their young men the most difficult tasks in the service of the State, calling into requisition their utmost powers, that so advantage might be taken of the vigor of their strength, their love of pleasure restrained by the seriousness, and their pride and self-boasting by the difficulty of the demands made upon them. On the other hand, there is the sensitiveness and irritability which is apt to show itself unpleasantly in peculiarly constituted dispositions, but which would prove absolutely destructive in a state like Sparta, where the citizens lived continually and intimately together. The only remedy here was the becoming habituated to that which excites sensitiveness, and therefore the boys were designedly subjected to provocations and accustomed to patiently endure raillery and even bitter mockery, and were required to maintain their self-control under the strongest of insults.

It was necessary, however, that a decided direction should be given to the individual will, in order that it might coincide with the laws and tendencies of the State, and the foundation for this culture was found in the habit of implicit obedience not only to those placed immediately over the youth but to all the elder citizens. They were taught to recognize the will of the State as presented in those who were, as it were, the bearers of the law which all served. It was justly looked upon as an evidence of a frank and noble disposition, characteristic of a man fitted to govern, when—instead of assuming to stand above and regardless of law and duty, as was frequently the case in other States—he bound himself publicly to the law even in its smallest particulars, and rendered swift and zealous obedience to the commands of his superiors. Moreover,

the moral sentiment of the individual, his opinion of good and evil, should be one with that of the community, and to this end great care was exercised. The youth were restricted as far as possible from all intercourse or acquaintance with whatever is bad, and every means was used, on the other hand, to confirm their judgment of that which is good and praiseworthy. The men, therefore, while sitting at their meals, often called the boys to join them, and while in their company everything indecorous was sedulously avoided, nothing was spoken of but the renowned deeds of the brave or the praiseworthy sayings of the good—no mention was made of any unworthy deed or unworthy expression. In this way they sought to impress upon their young minds the idea of Spartan virtue, of the upright and the honorable (*καλοκαγαθία*) and in like manner a contempt of death, and the undervaluation of life and of temporal goods in comparison with the claims of honor and virtue, and the demands of the State; and with a moral sentiment of this kind were the minds of the youth imbued, a sentiment amounting in fact to a real enthusiasm. At times when they were not engaged in gymnastic exercises, the leaders of the divisions were accustomed to put questions to the boys (*e. g.* Who is the best man? What conduct deserves the highest praise?) to which they briefly gave such answers as the spirit of Spartanism required, and it was esteemed a great disgrace for one not to have clear and ready opinions upon all moral and political subjects. One of the principal means, however, for the formation of character, lay in the legally encouraged relations of friendship that existed between the old and young. While in other Grecian States this love degenerated into base sensuality, in Sparta it always preserved a purely moral character and rested only upon mutual affection. Every one of the older citizens was almost obliged to select a favorite from among the boys or youth, and to cherish a constant friendly intercourse with him. It was his duty to impress upon the youth his ideal of honor and uprightness, and to exhibit in himself an example worthy to be followed, while his pupil was required to listen willingly to all his counsel. So great efficacy was expected from this relation that the elder was made accountable for all the other's faults and was punished for them. At the same time, the strong desires of the heart for sympathy and love were thus gratified, and in such a way as to bring direct advantage to the State by binding old and young together by the closest bond of union, and also by making a sure channel of transmission for the traditional constitution and rules of living. Finally, there was a gradual promotion from a position of

obedience to one of command. It commenced by their assisting in the management of the boys, while at the same time, slaves were placed under them who waited upon them at table; they were next placed in charge of the vassals who lived in the surrounding country, and afterwards received small commands over the bands of helots attached to the army.

The physical or gymnastic training of the Spartans, though coming, as we have seen, under the politico-moral view of the system, had yet for its special object, military efficiency. As the Spartans could not hope to prevail in war by virtue of their numbers, the demands made upon the individuals must be proportionally the more pressing, and the necessary means were therefore employed to secure from each uniformly the *full* use of *all* his faculties. By a restricted diet it was sought to harden the body and make it safe in a certain degree from pernicious external influences, to make it free, independent, and an ever docile subject of the will. It was in this direction that education among them was carried somewhat to an extreme, and it is to this that one has reference when he speaks proverbially of "a Spartan training." The boys wore no shoes and no covering for the head, and the hair was shaven close until entrance upon manhood. After the twelfth year all under garments were laid aside and a single cloak became the only clothing, and so continued through life. The couch was hard, made by the boy himself of the leafy heads of the reeds that grew upon the banks of the Eurotas; only in winter was he permitted to add to it any warmer material. Baths were taken only in the Eurotas—warm ones, such as were customary throughout the rest of Greece, were unknown, and as little use was made of unguents. The food was scanty, for the full satisfaction of hunger was considered injurious to health, and it was necessary for the boys to learn to subdue their hunger. Advantage was also taken of this in another way. That they might appease their hunger, the law allowed the theft of certain kinds of provisions, but whoever was detected was to be severely punished. Thus they acquired cunning and adroitness, such as a warrior needs when in an enemy's land. This regulation has been unjustly censured as employing an immoral means for a moral end. But in truth the idea of theft was removed, for the law which created the crime, was suspended in this special instance.* No Spartan was by this means made a thief, nor a pilferer of delicacies, for the permission to steal was limited to certain simple necessities of life. We

* The law itself may be properly considered immoral in so far as it permitted the property of the vassals or helots to be taken. But we have too little information to pass decisive judgment upon this point.

are not fully informed of the rules prescribed for the conduct of the youth, but their particularity may be inferred from the simple instance that they were forbidden to take a light with them in going any where in the dark. But the Spartan system of training reached the remotest extreme from the effeminacy of other nations, in its consistent endeavor to accustom the body to the endurance of severe pain; for this purpose there was instituted the custom of a general flagellation (*diapastriywais*) of the boys at the annual feast of Diana Orthia. The scourging was continued the whole day and whoever endured it the longest without manifestation of pain, received a prize as *βουλευίνης*. It is certain that many yielded up their lives under the blows rather than change a feature.

The Spartan youth spent the greater part of their time in physical exercises in the gymnasia, which were differently arranged according to the different ages of the classes. They rightly thought that the physical powers, as a whole, should be developed gradually and that the desired perfection could not be attained until the body was fully grown; the strength therefore was spared in early years and the final result was made thus the more certain. Of particular gymnastic exercises, especial attention was given to running, leaping, wrestling, throwing the discus and the javelin. Every thing was carefully avoided that seemed to go beyond what was necessary or to possess merely a kind of artistic merit, and hence boxing and the pancratium were wholly excluded. The desire was to train warriors, not athletes; the one acts from his position as but one member of a whole, the other asserts for himself an independent importance. In their exercises, therefore, many were engaged at once and great stress was laid upon military organization, order, and discipline. Exercises in the use of arms were only such as were adapted to the actual needs of warfare and required in the tactical training of the individual. But the contest with heavy arms (*ἐπλομαχία*) which after the Peloponnesian war became prevalent throughout Greece, were not permitted at all in Sparta. These various exercises were the chief amusements of the Spartan youth—indeed, they knew no other pleasures whatever. They engaged in them, therefore, with a certain degree of hilarity, and there were numerous games requiring dexterity and strength, to which they became greatly attached. The elder citizens assumed the duty of arranging the games, directing and enlivening them, and sometimes themselves publicly joining in them. They took great delight in games of ball, of which there were many varieties, some of them joined with dancing. The older class of young men were hence called *σφαιριῖς*,

ball-players. The noblest amusement of the men was the so called "war-game," in which they engaged upon the island of Platanistes, near Sparta, and also the hunt, which they looked upon as a worthy introduction to war itself. The Spartan however possessed—for he was a Greek—an inborn appreciation of and longing for graceful beauty, which received its gratification in the dances, with which was joined pantomimic acting. The movements of the dance were expressive of thought; the soul made use of the body for the immediate expression of its inmost emotions; and in this it is that the pedagogical value of the art of dancing lies. The Pyrrhic dance, which was performed in armor, was an especial favorite. An annual festival was established for the exhibition of the youth in these exercises, which naturally contributed much to the encouragement of an elevated taste. The duties which the young men (the *μελλεπαις*, from eighteen to twenty years of age) were required to perform for the public security and order in the territory, formed an introduction to actual service in the field. The State was threatened with continued danger from the great mass of helots whom it still could not do without and who were therefore regarded as enemies. It was made the duty of the youth to watch and restrain them, and to remove the most dangerous out of the way. Upon reaching his twentieth year, the youth was received into the army, but his education was not considered as finished until his thirtieth year.

The politico-moral bearing of Spartan education alone determined the limits of physical training, which however expanded itself so broadly that mention can scarcely be made of any special intellectual culture. Still for the promotion of political ends there was that learned and practiced which may be considered as giving to the Spartan a thorough mental training, capacitating him to feel unabashed even in comparison with the more scientifically educated Athenian, and in many respects to appear even superior to him. To read and write with ease, which we are wont to look upon as the first elements of education, the Spartans did not need to understand, though the necessities of the political position which they held naturally induced many to possess themselves of these qualifications. The Spartan did not learn from books but from word of mouth, and what he learned, he learned by heart. Hence whatever he acquired became a purely mental possession, and the deficiency in the quantity of knowledge was richly compensated for in the intense appreciation of the little treasure which he possessed. In this way he learned, beside the unwritten teachings (*ῥήματα*) of

Lycurgus, the principal works of the poets, Homer especially, a large portion of whose epics he faithfully committed to memory, thus possessing himself of a rich store of conceptions and thoughts, and becoming instructed in the principles of all Grecian refinement. He learned also such elegiac and lyric poetry as harmonized with the tendency of the Spartan constitution. Among these were the poems of Thaletas, of Alcman, and above all, of Tyrtæos, inspiring a self-sacrificing love of one's country, and probably at a later period the poems of Pindar also. On the other hand, such writings as did not accord with the Spartan disposition, like those of the dramatic poets, were strictly excluded. Moreover, great delight was taken in music, not indeed so much for its sake as an art, as for the high moral influence which was ascribed to it. It is difficult for us to conceive how powerfully the untainted nature of the Spartans was by this means moved, and how peculiar and diverse were the effects which different strains of music produced upon them. When order and harmony were lost among the citizens, the noted musicians, Terpander and Thaletas were summoned, and by the influence of such music as suited the Spartan nature—the so called Dorian melodies—composed all hostile feelings. This earnest, manly music was greatly relied upon in the culture of the youthful sentiments. Among the instruments used were the flute and the harp, without the improvements which were gradually introduced into the rest of Greece. But vocal music had a yet higher value, and choral songs were especially preferred because through the harmonious accord of souls a greater number were moved to united action.

In consideration of all this, it can not be said that the Spartans were without an esthetic culture. But the taste and the moral sentiment were in perfect harmony—conceptions of the beautiful and the good have here in practice become identical. Yet an important defect would have existed in their system of education, had they neglected the cultivation of the faculty of judgment. This omission would in fact have rendered the system itself impossible. A loose, vacillating habit of thought, an ever-shifting current of ideas, hasty judgments, looseness of expression, and whatever else belongs to this category, had no place in the clear, simple, energetic Spartan character. Its moral austerity demanded also a corresponding discipline of thought—and it was not neglected. The boy was trained, in passing judgment, to do it in a perfectly collected manner and with manly decision, and to so express his opinion that his own personality should be actually exhibited in it. The endeavor

was for the concentration of the inner man into every opinion; but practical as the Spartan was, he only prescribed the outward form of expression of the inner act and accustomed the boys, upon all questions proposed to them, to give a condensed, comprehensive reply, and always to say as much as possible in the fewest possible words. The brevity of Laconian speech became an object of admiration among the other nations of Greece. And it is in no way incompatible with that dignity which the Spartan loved, that he also loved wit and cultivated it. For in the witty saying, strength of mind is shown in its greatest concentration, if—as was here the case—it be restrained within moral limits; indeed, wit is then itself an evidence of the control which the man has attained over his mental powers and of the liberty that raises him above the outer world.

Scarcely any other method of education can boast of so great success as this of Sparta, which sought to solve the problem, how to raise men to be citizens of a peculiarly constituted State. (It must be remembered, however, that this State consisted only of the citizens of a single city, which never had a large population.) It attained perfectly its end, and by its means the Spartan State maintained itself for a century in uniform strength, with no domestic opposition during all that period. One reason for this great efficiency lay in the power of habit, of which the Spartans made a skillful use; and another, in the concentration, consistently carried through, of all the powers upon a single plain, practical object. But the secret is to be looked for yet deeper, in this—that the Spartans in reality satisfied in a manner consistent with nature, and at the same time, with their political principles, all those faculties and propensities of man which feel a need of cultivation. They understood man's whole nature, and hence with a wise appreciation of his infirmities, they chose well the means for the object which they had in view. This system, therefore, in its elementary simplicity, contains a treasure of pedagogical wisdom, from which much can always be learned.

There still remains something to be said respecting the education of females, to which more weight was given in Sparta than in any other Grecian State. The family held there an honored position, and the center of it was the wife and mother; the wife was regarded with great respect, received the title of "mistress," (*δέσπονα*) and had a strong influence over the husband. Hence the necessity of a certain equality of training in both sexes was recognized, and as brave, noble men could be the offspring only of noble, strong, and

intelligent mothers, the females were made to share, with certain necessary restrictions, in the same peculiar method of training. They should be possessed of the same moral character, the same love of country, the same pride of citizenship. Intercourse with the older women, aside from the influence which immediate contact with so noble a national habit of life must have exerted, was the chief agency in their education. Exercises in singing, and the learning of poetry and of choral songs had likewise a great effect in cultivating their minds. They also practiced gymnastic exercises in places set apart for their use, and indulged in judicious dances and pantomime. At established festivals they exhibited in public with dancing and singing, while the young men in their turn were spectators. By this means a spirit of emulation was excited which of necessity had an influence upon the mind, but was restrained within proper bounds by the discipline under which they lived. Under the given circumstances it served to beget in the Spartan women that feeling of pride which so greatly excited the admiration of strangers, as well as physical strength and beauty. Indeed, in place of that tender womanly nature whose perfection should be the object of a true female education, there was here a stern nature and an almost masculine character; the ideal of woman approached as nearly as possible to that of man.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN DENMARK.

OUTLINE OF SYSTEM AND STATISTICS.

PUBLIC instruction has long received much attention in Denmark. It is necessary to be able to read respectably, and to have received some religious instruction, in order to be admitted to the communion of the Lutheran church; and such admission is substantially indispensable to apprenticeship, or other industrial employment, and to marriage, so that the people are better instructed than those of most countries in Europe.

At the time of the reformation, there existed in every town, and in connection with the religious houses, a large number of Latin schools, containing in some cases from 700 to 900 pupils, in which also were classes for elementary instruction. Various royal ordinances were promulgated, from 1539 down to the present day, extending or modifying the provisions for public education which existed prior to that date. The present school system, however, dates from 1814, at which time an ordinance was published, reorganizing the system of primary and secondary instruction.

1. Each parish must furnish and maintain sufficient schools and teachers for the primary instruction of all children within it, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Lutheran catechism, to which are often added grammar, history, and geography. The emoluments of the teachers, although small, support them comfortably, as living is cheap. They commonly receive from \$200 to \$250, a small part of it in money, and the rest in provisions, besides the occupancy of a house and several acres of land. Similar but larger schools exist in the cities. There are 4,700 primary or parochial schools with about 300,000 pupils.

2. The secondary schools are the high or grammar schools, about 30 in number, in the cities and large towns. Of these the most eminent is the academy at Sorø, established in 1536, from the funds of a Cistercian monastery, founded about 1150 by Archbishop Absalon. In these schools are taught Latin and Greek, French and German, mathematics, natural sciences, geography, history, and all the branches of a thorough high school education. There are also about 30 real schools of a similar grade, but giving instruction more adapted to commercial pursuits. Here may also be classed the higher burgher schools of the cities. Female schools of this grade exist, but they are mostly private; indeed, there are many private schools, both for boys and girls.

3. Above these schools are the two universities, for Danish students, at Copenhagen, founded in 1479, and for German students, at Kiel, founded in 1665. The university of Copenhagen contained, in 1841, about 1,260 students, and 40 professors and instructors. Its revenue is about \$72,000 a year, and its library contains about 110,000 volumes. There is annexed to it a polytechnic institute, or school of arts, in which instruction is given in the application of science to industrial occupations. The university of Kiel contained at the same time about 390 students, and about fifty professors and teachers. It receives a revenue from the State of about \$30,000 a year, and has a library of 70,000 volumes. Besides the above-mentioned university revenues, the students at both pay fees to the professors, whose lectures they attend at Copenhagen, after the rate of from two to four dollars for a course of lectures, (one a week for six months,) and at Kiel, about a dollar for the same.

4. There are eight normal schools, in which the course of instruction occupies three years, and includes Danish, mathematics, natural sciences, writing, pedagogy, history, geography, gymnastics, and drawing.

The Lancasterian system of instruction, which was very generally tried and rejected in Germany, succeeded much better in Denmark. It was permissively introduced in 1822, and actively advocated by M. D'Abrahamson, aid-de-camp to the king, and by others, and spread with so much rapidity that in three years it was used in 1,707 schools, and in 1830 in 2,673, of all grades. It has, however, been considerably modified, and as now used is called the reciprocal or Danish system, to distinguish it from the original mutual, or Lancasterian.

The royal chancery is the highest board of educational inspection. The baliff and provosts of each town inspects its schools, and the pastor and "school patroons" those of each parish. The school patroons are all having a revenue, estimated, to equal or exceed 32 tuns, or 1,520 bushels of corn.

The institutions of special instruction, besides those already mentioned, are a medical school, a pharmaceutical school, a foresters' school, a military high school, a land-cadets' academy, a sea-cadets' academy, (lower schools for sea and land military service,) an academy of fine arts, a school for the blind, and one for deaf mutes.

Considerable funds are used in paying pensions to teachers' widows, and to retired or invalid teachers.

Iceland, an appendage of the Danish crown, with a population of 70,500, is remarkable for the universality with which elementary instruction is diffused, not by schools, but by the family. The only school on the island is a gymnasium for the higher studies at Bessestad, which was endowed in 1530.

III. NAVAL AND NAVIGATION SCHOOLS IN ENGLAND.

PRELIMINARY REMARKS.

BEFORE describing a class of schools in England, which is now receiving special attention and aid from the Science and Art Department of the Committee of Council on Education, viz. NAVIGATION SCHOOLS, we will glance at the condition of Nautical Education generally in this great maritime and commercial country.

The old system of training officers for the Royal Navy, under which mere children with the smallest possible amount of elementary knowledge, made the ship their school, even after a Naval Academy was established, had its peculiar advantages as well as its drawbacks. The captain, having the nomination of an almost indefinite number of "youngsters," stood towards them in *loco parentis*. He was their governor, guardian, and instructor, and did not "spare the rod" when he thought its application necessary. The captain was then looked up to with a feeling bordering on awe. Without assigning a reason he could disrate or discharge a midshipman; and he could also do much towards pushing him on in the service. The youngster felt that he was entirely in the power of his captain, and, unless of a reckless cast, used his best endeavors to gain his favor. The captain, on the other hand, talked of *his* youngsters with pride. He, (if he belonged to the better class of naval captains,) took care that every facility should be afforded them for learning their duty, often made them his companions on shore, and superintended their education afloat, sometimes taking a leading part in their teaching. He felt responsible for their bringing up, for some were sons of personal friends or relatives whom he had promised to watch over the youthful aspirants, and all were more or less objects of interest to him. But all this was swept away in 1844, and the captain's patronage limited to one nomination on commissioning a ship, the Admiralty taking the rest of the patronage into their own keeping. And what was the result? No sooner had the Admiralty absorbed the naval patronage—for the captain was frequently shorn of his one nomination before leaving Whitehall with his commission—than old officers and private gentlemen in middling circumstances found themselves unsuccessful applicants, while the influential country gentleman totally unconnected with the service, but able perhaps to turn the scale of an election, was not under the painful necessity of asking twice for a naval cadetship for his son, or the son of his friend. But what cared the captain for these Admiralty nominees? Too many of them were incapable of profiting by

their opportunities, and others neglected to avail themselves of the instructions of the professors of mathematics, and became the victims of dissipation.

I. NAVAL OFFICERS.

Royal Naval Academy.

The first attempt to educate lads for the naval service of England was in 1729, when the Royal Naval Academy was instituted in Portsmouth Dockyard. The course of instruction included the elements of a general education, as well as mathematics, navigation, drawing, fortification, gunnery, and small arm exercises, together with the French language, the principles of ship-building and practical seamanship in all its branches, for which latter a small vessel was set apart. The number was limited to forty cadets, the sons of the nobility and gentry, and attendance was voluntary. Small as the corps was, it was never full, probably because there was an easier way of gaining admission to the service through official favoritism, by appointment direct to some ship, on board of which during a six years' midshipman's berth, he acquired a small stock of navigation and a larger knowledge of seamanship and gunnery practice. In these ships where the captains were educated men, and took a special interest in the midshipmen, and competent instructors were provided and sustained in their authority and rank, this system of ship instruction and training worked well, as under the same conditions it did with us. In 1773 a new stimulus was given to the Academy by extending a gratuitous education to fifteen boys out of the forty, who were sons of commissioned officers. In 1806, under the increased demand for well educated officers, the whole number of cadets was increased to seventy, of whom forty were the sons of officers and were educated at the expense of the government. From this date to 1837 the institution was designated the Royal Naval College, but without any essential extension of its studies. In 1816 a Central School of Mathematics and Naval Architecture was added to the establishment, and in 1828 the free list was discontinued, and the sons of military officers were allowed to share the privileges of the school with the sons of naval officers, at a reduced rate in proportion to their rank. To keep up the number of students who would go through the four years course, it became necessary to extend special privileges, such as made promotion certain and rapid over those who entered the navy direct. This produced inconveniences and jealousies, and in 1837 the Naval College was discontinued.

Training Ship and Naval College.

In 1857 the Admiralty adopted the plan of a Training Ship for naval cadets. The candidate was to be from thirteen to fifteen years of age, and to pass an examination in Latin or French, Geography, Arithmetic, including Proportion and Fractions, Algebra, to Simple Equations, the First Book of Euclid, and the Elements of Plane Trigonometry. At the end of twelve or six months, according to age, spent in study and practice on the Training Ship, the cadet was examined in the studies before enumerated

with the addition of Involution and Evolution, Simple Equations, the Elements of Geometry, and of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, the simple rules of Navigation, the use of Nautical Instruments, Surveying, Constructing Charts, and the French language, besides an elaborate course of Seamanship, and attendance on lectures on Chemistry, Physics, Hydrostatics, &c. If this examination was satisfactory, the cadet was appointed to a sea-going ship, and at the expiration of fifteen months' service he was eligible for the rating of midshipman upon passing a further examination. The course in the Training Ship (first the "Illustrious," and subsequently changed to the "Britannia," first in Portsmouth harbor and more recently at Dartmouth,) proved too extensive for mastery in one year; and in 1861 the conditions for admission were lowered, the examinations in the school were made quarterly, and competitive, and if passed creditably at the end of a year, according to a fixed standard, (3,000 being the number of marks attainable, and 2,100 giving a first class certificate,) the cadet is rated at once as midshipman, and credited a year's sea-time. If he receives a second class certificate (1,500 marks,) he must serve six months at sea, and pass another examination before he can be rated midshipman. The cadet with a third-rate certificate (1,200 marks,) must serve twelve months at sea, and pass another examination for his midshipman's rating. Prizes and badges are also given, and the stimulus of competitive examination is applied as shown in the grading of certificates.

Gunnery Instruction.

In 1832 a uniform and comprehensive system of gunnery instruction was provided on the "Excellent," under command of Captain (now Sir Thomas) Hastings. To give such officers who were found deficient in the scientific knowledge requisite for a full understanding of the theory of gunnery, the Naval College was re-opened in 1839, under the general superintendence of the Captain of the Excellent, with Professors of Mathematics, Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, Steam Machinery, Chemistry and Marine Artillery. Accommodations were provided for twenty-five half-pay officers, (captains, commanders, and lieutenants,) and a certain number of mates on full pay, for whom a special course of study was instituted. The time allowed at the College was a clear year's study, exclusive of vacations, and those who have completed the course rank among the most distinguished officers of the profession.

Instruction in Steam and the Steam-Engine.

When steam vessels came into use in the Navy, to qualify officers for special service in them they were encouraged to resort to Woolwich Dock-yard, and afterward to the Portsmouth yard, where an instructor was appointed and facilities for observation, study, and experiments were provided. Many officers repaired to private factories, and worked at the lathe, in stoke-hole and the engine-room, and thus acquired a practical knowledge of this department of their profession. When the Naval College was estab-

lished on its present footing, a small steamer, the "Bee," was built and attached under the charge of the instructor in steam-machinery. And now the greater part of the captains and commanders on the active list have obtained certificates of having passed the course in Steam and the Steam-engine.

Admiralty Order respecting Naval Cadets and Midshipmen, dated April 1, 1860.

CADETS.

"I. No person will be nominated to a Cadetship in the Royal Navy who shall be under 12, or above 14 years of age, at the time of his first examination.

"II. Every candidate, on obtaining a nomination, will be required to pass an examination at the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth, within three months of nomination.* In the special cases of nomination granted to the sons of natives of the colonies a candidate will be allowed to pass a preliminary examination on board the flag or senior Officer's ship on the Station. But such an examination must be passed in strict accordance with these regulations, and should the candidate be found qualified, it will still be necessary that he should be sent to England, to be entered on board a training ship, where he will be subject to the same regulations as other Cadets.

"III. The candidate must produce a certificate of birth, or a declaration thereof made before a magistrate.

"IV. Must be in good health and fit for the Service—that is free from impediment of speech, defect of speech, rupture, or other physical inefficiency.

"Candidates will be required—1. To write English correctly from dictation, and in a legible hand. 2. To read, translate, and parse an easy passage from Latin, or from some foreign living language—the aid of a dictionary will be allowed for these translations.

"And to have a satisfactory knowledge of—3. The leading facts of Scripture and English history. 4. Modern geography, in so far as relates to a knowledge of the principal countries, capitals, mountains and rivers. To be able to point out the position of a place on a map, when its latitude and longitude are given. 5. Arithmetic, including proportion, and a fair knowledge of vulgar and decimal fractions. 6. A knowledge of the definitions and axioms of the First Book of Euclid.

"As drawing will prove a most useful qualification for Naval Officers, it is recommended that candidates for the Service should be instructed therein.

"V. Candidates will be allowed a second trial at the next quarterly examination. Should he not pass this second examination he will be finally rejected.

"VI. If the candidate succeeds in passing the required examination he will be at once appointed to a training ship, for the purpose of instruction in the subjects contained in Sheet No. 1,† as well as in the rigging of ships, seamanship, the use of nautical instruments, &c.

"VII. Quarterly examinations will be held on board the training ship, when any candidate may be examined in the subjects contained in Sheet No. 1, and also, in the course of instruction, in the rigging of ships, seamanship, &c.

"VIII. If a candidate be found at the quarterly examinations, not to have made sufficient progress, or if, by indifferent conduct or idle habits on board the training ship, he shall show his unfitness for the Service; it will be the duty of the Captain to make a special report thereof to the Admiralty, in order that the Cadet may be at once removed from the Navy.

"IX. When the candidate shall have completed twelve months' instruction, exclusive of vacations, in the harbor training ship, he will be examined, and

* These examinations will take place on the first Wednesdays in the months of March, June, September, and December.

† The examination on leaving the training ship will embrace all the subjects of the former examination, except Latin, and in addition to them it will include, in algebra, simple equations; the elements of geometry, plane trigonometry, and the solution, &c., as in the Circular No. 288, dated Feb. 28rd, 1857; and in addition the use of the globes with correct definitions of latitude, longitude, azimuth, amplitude, and other circles of the sphere, and drawing.

should he obtain a certificate of proficiency, he will be discharged into the sea-going training ship. A first-class certificate will entitle him to count twelve months' sea time; a second-class, will entitle him to count six months' sea time; a third-class, will entitle him to count six months' sea time. But should he not obtain a certificate, he will be discharged as unfit for the Service.

"X. On leaving the harbor training ship, it is intended that the Cadet shall pass three months in a sea-going training ship, for practical instruction in seamanship and navigation, which period will count for sea time, and at the end of this period, if his conduct has been satisfactory, he will be appointed to a ship with the rating of a Midshipman.

MIDSHIPMEN.

"To qualify a Midshipman for a Lieutenant's Commission he must have attained the full age of 19 years, and have completed $5\frac{1}{2}$ years' actual service in Her Majesty's Navy, including the time awarded to him on leaving the training ship.

"XI. All Midshipmen, until they have passed their examinations for Lieutenants, are to keep a book in which the ship's reckoning is to be worked out and noted; at sea, this book is to be sent in every day to the Captain, instead of the slip of paper containing a day's work. It is also to be produced at their examinations; and during the last six months of their service as Midshipmen, it must contain the working of the observations.

"XII. A Midshipman when he shall have served two years and a half in that rank will be required to pass the following examination:—1. In practical navigation, showing that he understands the principle of navigating a ship from one distant port to another, by dead reckoning and by his own observations; and that he can explain the principles of the same; and that he can also take and work a double altitude and azimuth. 2. A sufficient knowledge of a chart to enable him to place thereon the position of the ship by observation as well as by cross bearings; and to lay off the true and compass courses. 3. Such knowledge of nautical surveying as may enable him to measure a base line and determine positions by angles, and the manner of ascertaining heights and distances. 4. If he has served in a steam vessel, an acquaintance with the different parts and working of the steam engine. 5. A proficiency in French to be attained if he has had an opportunity. 6. He must be a good practical observer, and his sextant must be produced in good order. 7. He must produce log-books kept by himself from the time of his entering into a sea-going ship, and certificates of good conduct.

"8. He will likewise be examined as to his progress in the knowledge of rigging masts, bowsprits, &c. He must also know the great gun and small arm exercise, the use of tangent sights, the charges for the guns of the ship, and be able to exercise the men at his quarters. A report of the progress he has made in each of the above subjects is to be made to the Secretary of the Admiralty in the half-yearly return.

"This examination is to be conducted by the Officer in command, not below the rank of Commander, and the next senior Officer in the ship, and the examinations in navigation in the presence of a Captain or Commander, by two Naval Instructors, when it may be practicable, or by a Naval Instructor and a Master, or, where there is no Naval Instructor, by two Masters; that in gunnery, by a gunner, or other competent Officer; and the candidate is to be made to take and work out his own observations for latitude, longitude, variation, &c., as the case may be. First or second class certificates are to be given according to the merit of the candidate, in the form A, page 8, or he is to be rejected if found incompetent.

"XIII. A Midshipman, having completed his term of service, and being 19 years of age, may be provisionally examined by the Captain or Commander of such ship or vessel with the aid of other competent Officers, Lieutenant, Master, or second Master, when no other ships are present; and if they find him to be duly qualified they are to give him a certificate to that effect, dated on the day of such examination, and the Captain may forthwith give him an acting order as Mate; but he must be re-examined, on the first opportunity that shall afterwards offer, by three Captains or Commanders, and if he passes successfully he

will receive from the Commander-in-Chief, or senior Officer, an acting order as Mate, to take rank according to the first certificate.

"The examining Officers are to be most strict in their investigation of the qualifications of Officers, and they are to see that everything required by these Regulations has been complied with by the candidates, and that he produces certificates of good conduct from Captains he has served under from the time of his discharge from the training ship.

"XIV. All Acting Mates and Midshipmen will be required to undergo the following final examinations,—1. In Seamanship—On board the training ship at Portsmouth. 2. In Gunnery—On board the *Excellent*. 3. In Navigation and the Steam Engine—At the Royal Naval College.

"Acting Mates, who have already passed abroad, are to present themselves for examination, on board the training ship at Portsmouth, at the first examination day after their arrival in England, or after being paid off, and having passed in gunnery they are then at liberty to select either the first, second, or third examination day at the Royal Naval College.

"XV. Any Officer rejected on his first examination at the College will incur the forfeiture of three months' seniority in his rank as Mate. He may present himself on the next examination day, but a second rejection will incur the forfeiture of three months' more seniority; he may again present himself on the next examination day, but a third rejection will cause his name to be removed from the list of the Navy.

"XVI. Officers, when they have passed their final examination at the Royal Naval College, as provided for in these Regulations, will be confirmed from the date of their first certificate. The non-appearance of an Officer for examination at the Royal Naval College at the times required by these Regulations will be considered as an acknowledgment of his not being qualified, and he will be dealt with in the same manner as if he had been actually rejected, on each day on which he may have omitted to appear, unless under certified ill-health, to be duly reported at the time.

"XVII. Naval Instructors are to keep a school journal, or register, which is to be produced when required by the Captain of the ship or the examining Officers, and the Captain is to allow them reasonable access to the charts and chronometers, for the purpose of instructing the Officers in their use.

"XVIII. The Captains of Her Majesty's ships are to take care that a convenient place is set apart and proper hours are fixed for instruction by the Naval Instructor; and all Acting Mates and Acting Second Masters, as well as all executive Officers under that rank, are to attend; and care is also to be taken that they are regularly instructed in practical seamanship, rigging, and the steam-engine, and a monthly examination day is to be established.

The subject of Education for Officers has been recently under discussion in Parliament, and some modifications of the existing system is now under the consideration of the Admiralty, looking to greater maturity of age and preparation for admission, a more extended and thorough course of scientific training in cadets, and continued opportunities of study with accompanying examinations for officers up to the grade of commanders.

II. THE ROYAL MARINE ARTILLERY.

In 1804 an artillery company was attached to each of the three divisions of the Royal Marine Corps, to supply the service of the bomb-vessels, and in time of peace, to drill the whole of the marines in gunnery. But they were soon made available for other purposes, and on the outbreak of the American war in 1812, a large body of the Marine Artillery, with a field battery and rocket equipment, accompanied the battalions of marines then formed for service in America. In 1817 this force was augmented to eight companies, and Sir Howard Douglass, while advocating the establishment

of "Naval Depots of Instruction," for the purpose of converting officers and men of the Royal Navy into efficient gunners, complimented the Marine Artillery as being "either a corps of good infantry, of scientific bombardiers, or expert field artillery men, well constituted, thoroughly instructed, and ably commanded." It was not until June, 1830, that an Admiralty order directed that a school of gunnery should be established at Portsmouth, on board the "Excellent," and with the intention of making this school the one means of instruction in this department, it was farther ordered, in December, 1831, that the Marine Artillery, as a distinct and separate corps, should be broken up, retaining two companies as a nucleus of a larger force, should such become necessary. And the necessity appeared; for the experience of a few years proved that it would be impossible for the school to effect, to any important extent, the results which were desired. In 1841, therefore, a third company of the artillery was ordered; in 1845, two more; and by subsequent additions, its strength was raised in 1859, to sixteen companies, with a total of 3,000 officers and men, who were formed into a separate division with its head quarters at Fort Cumberland.

The officers of the Marine Artillery were at first appointed from the marine corps, without any particular qualifications being required, but afterwards their appointments were made probationary and conditional upon the satisfactory completion of a prescribed mathematical course. In 1839 it was decided that a certain number of second lieutenants should be allowed to prepare themselves for examination on board the *Excellent*, and upon the re-opening of the Royal Naval College as an educational establishment for mates, it was arranged that the students for the artillery should be transferred to it, and that their success or failure, after a years' further study, should decide upon their appointment to the artillery. Another and final modification took place upon the introduction of preliminary examinations for the marines, and the subsequent formation of a cadet establishment on board the *Excellent*. In case of vacancies in the artillery, those who had passed the best examinations upon first entering the corps, were selected for the College, and no officers were allowed to become candidates on any other terms, their final success depending as before, upon the progress they might make as students at the College.

The cadets have their periods of study limited to two years; it may be less, but can not be more. They have to acquire a competent knowledge in Arithmetic, Algebra, Euclid, including the first four books and part of the sixth, Plane Trigonometry, the use of the Sextant, Fortification, English History, and French. To this may be added a practical course of Naval Gunnery. Their studies are carried on under the direction of a mathematical instructor, and an instructor of fortification. A French master attends twice a week. If on obtaining his commission, the young marine officer is selected to qualify for the artillery at College, he must be prepared at the end of a year to pass an examination in Analytical Trigonometry, Differential and Integral Calculus, Conic Sections, Statics and Dynamics,

Hydrostatics, and "Steam," besides being required to have an increased knowledge of Arithmetic, Algebra, and Fortification. In a year little more than a superficial knowledge of these studies can possibly be attained, yet insufficient as this period clearly is, it has sometimes been the case that, when a large number of subalterns were required for the artillery, young officers have been appointed who have completed only half their term at College. Having thus gained his appointment to the artillery, his remaining in it depends upon there being a vacancy or not at the time when his seniority on the general list of the corps advances him to each successive grade of rank.

The men are volunteers from the light infantry divisions, possessing certain specified qualifications as to age, height, intelligence and character.

The course of training, which is with a few exceptions, common to both officers and men, is very comprehensive; it includes—

1. The usual infantry drills and musketry instruction.
2. The exercise of field guns and rockets, with such field battery movements as are of real practical importance.
3. The service of heavy ordnance, including guns, howitzers, and sea and land service mortars.
4. The naval great gun exercise.
5. Mounting and dismounting ordnance, with or without machines.
6. The various methods of slinging and transporting ordnance.
7. Knotting, splicing, and fitting gun gear, use of pulleys, &c.
8. A laboratory course, including:—use and preparation of tubes, rockets, and fuzes; making up cartridges; manufacture of port fires, Valenciennes stars, signal rockets, blue lights, &c., with instruction in the manufacture and effects of gunpowder and other explosive compounds.
9. A course of practical gunnery, comprising—instruction in the nature and uses of the various kinds of guns, howitzers, and mortars; in the natures, employment, and effects of the various projectiles; disparting and sighting ordnance; heating and firing red-hot shot; and such matters connected with the theory of projectiles as may have a practical application.
10. Practice from different natures of ordnance, with every description of projectile.

* The system of instruction is so arranged that every officer and non-commissioned officer is qualified, as far as practicable, as an instructor, a registry being kept of each man's progress and capabilities. A spirit of emulation has been created, attended with the happiest results, and the whole course is now gone through in less than twelve months, without the men being wearied or overworked.

III. SCHOOLS FOR WARRANT OFFICERS, SEAMEN, AND BOYS.

1. *Seamen's Schoolmasters.*

Schoolmasters for seamen are allowed on all ships having a complement of not less than three hundred men, and an allowance of £5 per annum is

granted, in addition to the pay of any rating he may hold, to a qualified person doing this duty of the captain's orders, in ships not having a seamen's schoolmaster. An allowance is made for books, slates, &c. to all ships having schools. The success of the school to the boys and the men depends mainly on the interest shown in it by the captain and second officer in command, and especially on the character of the schoolmaster employed. The situation is too often filled by an old quartermaster, or sergeant of marines, who obtains the berth as a kind of retirement, or by some person who has a fancy for sea life, but who is fit for nothing on shore, much less for teaching under the difficulties of a ship at sea. It is found that when the schoolmaster is qualified for this special service, and is entered for continuous service, and being placed in regard to pay, pension, and good conduct badges on an equality with other chief petty officers, and when a log or register of attendance is kept, and frequent reports are made to superior authority, the result is highly conducive to discipline, and to the elevation of the seamen's habits and character. One of the Commissioners recently appointed to examine into the state of popular education among every class of British subjects, speaking of the effect of this class of schools upon the men on board the ships, says: "After visiting the "Cambridge," at Plymouth, as I walked with the captain through the lower deck, I found many, both boys and men, reading books with the greatest attention. In the evening of the same day, on the lower deck of the "Agincourt," I found the same scene, while others were engaged in draughts, chess, or writing letters to their friends." With the present scale of punishment on board of men of war, the school is an indispensable element of discipline. The Commissioners referred to, in their report to the Queen, recommend that schoolmasters of higher qualification be appointed, with an increase of pay, and promotion by merit, when their schools are reported favorably upon by any authorized inspectors, and with the same retiring pension as master-at-arms, and that in addition to an elementary general education, a knowledge of navigation, physical geography, and natural history be required of candidates.

2. *Schools on board of Ships in Harbor.*

A second class of naval schools consists of Harbor Ships, into which boys entered for admission to the Navy, are received until they are drafted into the various sea-going ships. Four of these ships, the "Victory" and "Excellent," at Portsmouth, the "Impregnable" and "Cambridge," at Plymouth, are specially devoted to instruction. Boys remain in these ships for one year. The first part of this period is generally spent on board the ship, the latter part in the practising brig, in which during the summer months they are out at sea for five days during the week. There is a school under a seamen's schoolmaster on board of each of these ships. The Commissioners report that the school time is necessarily subject to great interruptions, but that much valuable instruction might be given with better organization and methods. They recommend that an educa-

tional test for admission to these training ships be introduced, which would at once have a good effect upon the general education of the people resident in the seaport towns, and elevate the intelligence, morality and manners of the seamen.

3. *Royal Marine Schools.*

There are four schools attached to the divisions of marines quartered in barracks respectively at Woolwich, Chatham, Portsmouth and Plymouth, and another to the division of marine artillery quartered at Portsmouth. These five schools are attended by the marines and their children. The attendance of the men is for the most part voluntary, with the exception of the non-commissioned officers, who are obliged to attend the school until they have passed a prescribed examination. In the marine artillery every man is required to read and write, and if deficient in these respects, he is obliged to attend the school until his requirements are reported to be satisfactory. The Commissioners recommend that a better class of schoolmasters be specially trained and employed, and that they receive better rank and pay, and more efficient assistance in the discharge of their duties, and that trained mistresses be employed as assistants in the boys' schools, and have the exclusive charge of the girls' schools, in all of which sewing should be taught and practised daily.

4. *Dock-yard Schools.*

There are seven dock-yard schools, held in the respective dock-yards of Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, Devonport, and Pembroke. They were founded in 1840, and are designed for the instruction of the apprentices employed in these establishments. The masters of them were originally foremen of the yard, men of good attainments, who had for the most part received their education in the School of Naval Architecture; but in 1847 a special class of schoolmasters was established, ranking as foremen of the yard. The object of these schools is to advance the education of the young men, since none are admitted as apprentices to become shipwrights until they have passed an examination.

Examinations for admission as apprentices to the dock-yards are held half-yearly, and about one-half are given to the lads who pass the best examinations, and the other half to nominees of the superintendent. These latter, however, are required to come up to a prescribed intellectual standard. The examinations are held under the Civil Service Commissioners, in the following subjects:—1. Dictation exercises to test Hand-writing and Orthography. 2. Reading. 3. Arithmetic. 4. Grammar. 5. English Composition. 6. Geography. 7. Mathematics, (Euclid, first three books, Algebra including Quadratic Equations, Arithmetical and Geometrical Progression.) The master shipwright and the schoolmaster are of opinion that the boys entered by competition are the best, and among the working shipwrights themselves the opinion is unanimous that the system of entering at least one-half by competition ought not to be done away.

The effect in inducing parents to keep their children at school in order to fit their sons for examination is very manifest, and the justice of promotion by personal merit is felt and acknowledged by all.

For the first three years all the apprentices are compelled to attend, while those in the fourth year may volunteer to attend with others if they show an aptitude for study, and a disposition to profit by the opportunities afforded them. The fifth-year apprentices may attend after the hours of labor. So long as admission to the Central School of Mathematics and Naval Construction at Portsmouth, and an immediate appointment and regular advancement to the higher offices in the yard, after leaving the latter establishment, stimulated young men to the acquisition of knowledge, the attendance for the fourth year was numerous and regular. But the abolition of the School of Mathematics, and with it the consequent promotion of its graduates, operated very unfavorably both on attendance and habits of private study.

In 1859 the Admiralty adopted a supplementary course of study for such apprentices as have been diligent in their work, exemplary in conduct, and made satisfactory progress in acquiring a knowledge of their trade. This course, extending over two years for three hours a day, embraces Descriptive Geometry, Elementary Mechanics, and Hydrostatics, Logarithms, Calculations of displacement, Stability of ships, &c., Plane Trigonometry, Differential Calculus, with Analytical Geometry, Advanced Mechanics, Hydrostatics, and Dynamics. This class of apprentices perform the duty ordinarily devolved on mould loft apprentices, under the superintendence of the draughtsmen in the mould loft. Scholarships of twenty pounds per annum are granted to such members of the class as show superior ability, attainments, and good conduct.

In the year 1859 there were 1,060 pupils in the five Dock-yard Schools, viz. : 461 apprentices, and 599 factory boys, the latter attending mainly in the evening.

The Commissioners pronounce these schools valuable institutions, both to the state and to the individuals, and they have demonstrated, according to the testimony of one of the master shipwrights, that the educated boy makes the superior workman, and the most moral and temperate man. They recommend that a better class of teachers be employed, and that their pay should be increased by half the amount of the scholarship accorded to the most proficient pupils of the advanced class, and that the intellectual part of the examinations for promotion should be conducted by the Civil Service Commissioners. To make this class of schools what they should be, much must be done to improve the education of the laboring classes, outside of the dock-yards.

5. *Greenwich Hospital Schools.*

The Greenwich Hospital School for 200 pupils, the orphans and sons of disabled seamen, and known as the Upper School, was founded in 1715. In 1805 the Royal Naval Asylum (founded in 1798,) consisting of 600 boys

and 200 girls, was removed to Greenwich, and in 1821, was united to the former, and was designated the Lower School, making in that year (1821) a total of 1,000 children. In 1828, the number of boys in the Lower School was reduced to 400, and the Upper to 600, one-third of the latter being the sons of commissioned and ward-room officers. In 1841, the girls' school was abolished, leaving 400 in the Upper, and 400 in the Lower School.

The schools are supported partly by the income of a special endowment (£136,000,) and partly by the general funds of the Hospital. The total expenditure for the two schools in 1859 was £20,234, for an average attendance of 774 boys.

Boys are admitted to the Lower School solely upon the claims of their fathers' services. Until quite recently admissions to the Upper School were by patronage, but by recent regulations all exclusive privileges of nomination have been discontinued, and all claims for admission into the school (the distinction of Upper and Lower School having been done away,) are decided by a Committee of Selection, according to a scale laid down. The 110 boys found to be best in the last examination of 1860, were constituted the Nautical School, admission to which is now gained by competitive examination among the other boys of the school. The instruction of this school (for a Nautical School had always existed, composed of the two first classes of the Upper School,) is confined to Mathematics and Navigation, and qualifies its recipients to rise in their profession as masters' assistants in the Royal Navy, and as midshipmen and apprentices in the merchant service. A system of pupil teachers, selected on account of aptitude for teaching, and a willingness to adopt the profession of schoolmaster as their career in life, has been recently introduced.

The Commissioners referred to, recommend that a Normal School for the Navy be established at Greenwich, similar to that for the Army at Chelsea, that the present pupil-teachers who are above the age of eighteen form the nucleus of this school, and that others to the number of ten at first, be admitted after examination; that the course of their education be adapted to their future calling, and that at the close of their career they be examined, and receive a certificate of qualification. These teachers thus educated and trained, would be fitted to take charge of the Navigation Schools, under the Board of Trade; would enter the Dock-yard Schools, as assistants at first, and they would be appointed to masterships on board the Training Ships, both in the royal and commercial ports.

They also recommend that boys from the second class in the Ship Schools be selected to serve as pupil-teachers under the schoolmasters, and that a small allowance be made them, in addition to their pay, if they pass a satisfactory examination at the end of the year, and their conduct is reported to be satisfactory, and at the end of three years they be admitted, if found competent, to the Normal School at Greenwich, or that they be entered for continuous service as assistant schoolmasters, with rank and pension of first class petty officers. At the end of two years

this last class of assistants, if found competent, will be admitted to the practising school at Greenwich, for six months at the least, during which residence they will devote their time to the art of teaching, and to the study of Navigation, Physical Geography, and Natural History. On the completion of their training they will go out as Royal Navy Schoolmasters, and will be divided into three classes, viz.: 3d class, who shall have the rank and pay of chief petty officers, (continuous service,) and shall be entitled to the same pension. 2d class, who shall rank above master-at-arms, and shall receive the same pay and pension. 1st class, shall rank with third class warrant officers, with same pay and pension, and after long and approved service, masters of this class shall be eligible for further promotion to rank and pay of second and first class warrant officers. Schoolmasters in each of these classes shall be entitled to £10 per annum in addition to their pay, if they are recommended by the captain and chaplain, and their schools are certified to be in an efficient state when examined, either by H. M. Inspector, or by any other person appointed by the Admiral of the Station for that purpose. Schoolmasters shall be promoted from one class to another by merit. Graduates of the Normal School at Greenwich, may be admitted at once to the second class, if they are appointed to Training Ships in harbor. Navy schoolmasters must be appointed by the Admiralty, and must pass an examination in Navigation, Physical Geography, and Natural History. All naval schools should be inspected by her majesty's inspectors, if possible, but if on foreign stations, by the chaplains of the Flag-ship, or by any schoolmaster of the first class, appointed by the Admiral to that duty, and the reports forwarded to the Committee of Council on Education, to be presented to Parliament and published with the other Educational Reports for the year.

Navigation Schools.

In 1853 the English Government constituted the Department of Science and Art, to extend a system of encouragement to local institutions of Practical Science, similar to that commenced a few years before in the Department of Practical Art, the two Departments being united in the course of the same year, and the united Department being administered at first by the Board of Trade, and in 1856, by the Education Department. To this Department of Science and Art, was assigned in 1853 the general management of a class of schools which had been instituted or aided by the Mercantile Marine Department of the Board of Trade, for the benefit of the navigation interests of the country. Instruction in navigation was given in the seaports by private teachers, without system, and to a very small number of those who should be well grounded in the principles of the art before entrusted with the responsibilities of command, involving the lives and property of others. To introduce system, to give permanent employment to a larger number of well-qualified teachers of navigation, to elevate and improve the attainments and character of British masters, mates and seamen, and indirectly but largely increase the supply for the Royal Navy

in time of war, the Government had determined to encourage local effort in establishing Nautical Schools. With this view the Marine Department of the Board of Trade had established two schools prior to 1853, one in London, and the other in Liverpool; and an arrangement had been made with the Admiralty, by which it was believed five or six pupil-teachers, who had completed their term of instruction at the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, would be able to attend the scientific courses in the Metropolitan Schools of Science and Art, and be instructed in those sciences which would better fit them to become masters of schools of navigation in the seaport towns. In 1854, the Trinity House of Hull reorganized its old school of navigation, after the plan of the Royal Naval School at Greenwich, with two divisions, the lower for a class of boys who need elementary instruction, and the upper, for boys in the technical studies of a seafaring life. With the latter was opened an evening school for adult seamen. Similar schools, with a junior or lower division to revise and complete the general and preparatory studies, and a senior or upper school for special scientific and practical instruction in navigation and seamanship, were established at Yarmouth, Leith, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Belfast, Dublin, Waterford, and other ports, fifteen in all up to 1862, giving instruction to over 3,000 persons, and all of them enlisting local co-operation and individual payment with governmental aid. As an example of this class of schools we cite a brief description of one of the earliest established, from a Report of the Inspector, Edward Hughes, one of the masters of the Greenwich Hospital Schools.

London Navigation School.

The London Navigation School is held on the upper floor of the Sailors' Home Institution, situated in Well Street, London Dock, consists of two separate apartments, occupied by the Upper and Lower sections.

The upper section is for the instruction of masters and mates of the merchant service in the following subjects, viz.:

Sextant Observing. Chart Drawing. Geometry. Algebra. Trigonometry. The Sailings. Use of the Nautical Almanac and Mathematical Tables. Principle and Construction of Chronometers. Methods of determining the Latitude and Longitude. Nautical Surveying. Compasses and Magnetism of Ships. Theory of Winds, Tides, and Currents. Methods of taking and recording Meteorological Observations. Principle and Construction of the Steam Engine as applied to the Paddle Wheel and Screw Propeller.

The Lower section is for the education of seamen and apprentices. The course embraces the following subjects:—

Reading. Writing. Dictation and Letter Writing. Arithmetic. Geography. The Sailings. Sextant Observing. Method of Keeping Ships' Books.

The hours of attendance are from 9 to 12 a. m., 2 to 4 p. m., and 6 to 9 p. m. on the first five days of the working week, and from 9 to 12 a. m. on Saturdays.

The fees are six shillings per week for masters and mates, sixpence for seamen, and apprentices are admitted free.

The instruction of both sections is conducted by teachers who have been educated and trained in the Greenwich Hospital Schools, and who hold certificates of competency for teaching Navigation and Nautical Astronomy, from Mr. Ridle, the Head Master of the Nautical School.

To be continued.

IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

BY ALPHONS LEROY.†

Professor in University at Liege.

I. ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION.

A. LEGISLATION.

THROUGH the influence of the "*Gesellschaft Tot nut van 't algemeen*," (*Society for the promotion of public interests*),* which was organized in 1784, mainly through the efforts of John Nieuvenhuysen, a Memnonite minister of North Holland, the government was induced, in the first year of the nineteenth century, to enter upon the work of popular education. The celebrated orientalist Van der Palm, who in 1799, under the Batavian Republic, had the management of public instruction, and was afterward member of the Ministry of the Interior, with similar duties, effected the passage, in 1801 and 1803, of two laws, both of which breathed the spirit of the period in which they were issued. In 1805, a change in the government occurred, and Van der Palm withdrew from public life.

The president of the Republic, Pensionary (Roadpensionaris,) Schimelpenninck, abolished the Ministry of the Interior, and appointed instead a Secretary of State, to whom he assigned the care of public instruction. To assist in the duties of this department of public schools, Van der Ende, was made Assistant Secretary, who had occupied a similar position in 1801, and now finished and perfected the work commenced by Van der Palm. He remained at the head of public schools until 1833. To him is due the elaboration of the law which was laid before the Chamber Deputies on the 19th November, 1805, adopted on the 25th February, 1806, and on the 3d April, approved by the Pensionary, together with the general regulations which had been laid down under authority from the government, and which were thus made part of the law itself. "This public school law," says Cousin, "was based upon such just and wise views, it showed so beautiful a consistency throughout, and such accordance with the spirit of the people, and it was found

* "The Society for the Public Good," as it is generally designated, commenced its labors in behalf of popular education, by preparing and circulating among the common people useful elementary books, not only on religious and moral subjects, but also on matters of every day life. Its second object was to establish model schools, with libraries for the use of work people who had left school, in all localities where it had subscribers. Its third object was to conduct inquiries into the true principles of the physical and moral education of children, and into school method. Under its lead the magistrates of Amsterdam in 1797, and of several other large towns undertook the work of school improvement. In 1809, the society numbered 7,000 members, having departments, or branches in every province and town, and has continued to exert an important influence on popular education to the present time.

† From Schmidt's "*Encyclopædie Pædagogische*," with modifications and additions.

to adapt itself so readily, through the universality of its principles, to the most diverse wants of the several provinces, that it has remained in force, and without any important alterations, up to the present date, and through three great popular revolutions. When the government in 1829, in its partiality to the liberals of Belgium, proposed a new, law making deplorable changes in the law of 1806, the chambers united in opposition to it, and the government was obliged to withdraw its proposition."

The law of 1806, has continued in force for half a century, and every one admits that it has operated admirably. Yet in the provisions of the 22d and 23d articles of the regulations, (Supplement A.,) lay hid the elements of a storm, which is even yet scarcely allayed, and which has been the cause, as we just intimated, of new legislation. The subject is of such importance that we present a formal explanation.

"ART. 22, of Ordinance A. Instruction shall be directed as well to the development of the mental faculties as to the acquisition of useful information, and also to the training of the pupils in the practice of all the social and Christian virtues.

"ART. 23.—Provision shall be made that the pupils do not remain without instruction in the doctrines of that religious faith to which they belong. The teacher however shall not have the charge of this branch of instruction."

These articles asserted the principle of secular and mixed schools, and the ministers of the different creeds had at first no thought of contesting it; they readily promised the government their coöperation, and even the Catholics were disposed to acquiesce, if a conclusion may be drawn from the declaration of the Archbishop of Friesland. "It is necessary, in my opinion, to the preservation of harmony, friendship, and affection among the different religious societies, that instruction in the doctrines of the different churches should not be communicated by the teachers. In order to effect the object, so desirable, which the government has in view, and for which it demands our earnest coöperation, the work must be commenced in childhood, and although as our church requires of us the doctrinal instruction of its children, these enactments of a government that takes so great interest in the well-being of the young, will serve but to quicken our zeal in the performance of our duties."

The relation at that time existing in Holland, between the churches and schools, was entirely different from what it was in Prussia. Said Van der Ende to M. Cousin; "The public schools shall be by all means Christian schools, but neither Protestant nor Catholic; they shall be limited to no special form of worship, and shall teach no exclusive doctrine. There shall be no special Catholic and no special Protestant schools! A public school is for the people, wholly and completely. Moreover, tolerance is by no means indifference. You are in Holland, where a Christian spirit is widely disseminated, and where for centuries past, great toleration has prevailed between the different churches." "Even here in the Teachers' Seminary," added M. Prinsen, of Haarlem, "there is no special instruction in morals. I give instruction neither in morals nor in what is called natural religion. It should rather be called metaphysics. But by all the

teachers a religious and moral feeling is, at every opportunity, awakened, encouraged, and sustained. All the instructors teach morality, but no one gives special instruction therein. We receive here Protestants, Catholics, and Jews, but the latter are present with the classes in biblical history, (which is made a regular subject of study,) in the Old Testament only. These Jewish pupils become afterward teachers in the special schools supported by the Jews for their own children." M. Cousin was greatly surprised; he approved of the German system, yet was obliged to confess that there existed here no religious animosity between the children of the different churches, and that nevertheless moral and religious men were the result of these secular schools. Did the phlegmatic temperament of the Dutch contribute to this result? Could time alone develop the dangerous tendencies of the system? However this may be, since 1848, a diversity of feeling has existed, and sharply defined parties have arisen in mutual opposition.

But aside from that, the alterations made in the constitution during that year, would have necessitated a revision of the school laws. The fourth section of (ART. 194,) of the new constitution was thus worded:

"Instruction (het geven van onderwig's) shall be free, under the absolute control of government, and, so far as the public, and intermediate schools are concerned, under the condition of guarantees of capacity, and good morals, to be given by the teacher, and to be fixed by law."

Attention had also been directed to the insufficiency of the teachers' salaries, to the vagueness of the provisions of the law regulating the proceedings of the parishes, and lastly, to the want of uniformity in the governmental superintendence. This was also evidently a favorable opportunity for those who believed there were yet more important grievances to be redressed. Through the influence of the University at Utrecht, which had become the center of Calvinistic orthodoxy, an ultra-protestant party had been formed,—conservative, inasmuch as it desired the restoration of the form of government of 1789, and weak in numbers, but active and energetic. It had taken its name from Groen van Prinsterer, a prominent preacher and writer, who, with his adherents, had noticed with some misgiving, how the Catholics in every place where they had any influence, were strictly carrying into operation the provisions of the law of 1806, respecting religious instruction. The Catholics, enjoying perfect equality of rights, excluded from the instruction of the schools every thing of a doctrinal character, and even set the Bible aside. The Groenists determined to check the anticipated advances of the Romish church, by openly attacking the principle of mixed schools, which they represented to be nurseries of atheism and hot-beds of irreligion and immorality; they demanded, at every cost, sectarian schools, and a positive religious instruction. The majority of the Chambers expressed themselves in favor of the establishment of exclusive schools by private persons, inasmuch as the constitution guaranteed free instruction; but they maintained that the influence of surrounding circumstances, and the Christian sentiment of the entire nation gave a Christian tendency to the

instruction of the schools, and that it must, in fact, be Christian in its character, though the law could not so prescribe it. In the ranks of this strong party were the Catholics, who would banish religious instruction entirely from the schools rather than see given to it a coloring in any degree Protestant,—the liberals, who desired a complete separation of church and state, and the non-conformists of every kind, Memnonites, Lutherans, Jews, and even certain of the orthodox reformed, who upon this subject differed from the zealous adherents of the dominant church. The views of these last, deserve mention, since they accord with measures whose full importance the future only will reveal. We give them in the words of von Laveleye:

"German Theology is famous for its works of criticism upon the historical or mythical portions of the gospels. The most important of the literary productions of all foreign writers, are now translated into the Dutch language, and moreover, every educated man in the Netherlands, is well acquainted with German. This, together with the ready communication of religious information by other means, has caused the rationalistic labors of German science to exert a powerful influence upon the theology of Holland; and so great has this become, that the orthodox clergy are filled with the greatest anxiety, as they see several of the principal pulpits of the land occupied by preachers whose teachings have a more or less decidedly expressed tendency to Socinianism. Certain it is, that the opinion which represents Christ as a being higher than man, but less than God, has gained strength, and at the University of Gröningen has attained a predominant influence. The effect of this tendency, whether it be to unitarianism or rationalism, is to direct attention rather to the morals of Christianity, and its civilizing influences, than to its doctrines and power to save. Christ is looked upon rather as the perfect archetype, in conformity to which, humanity should be fashioned, rather than the Messiah who died upon the cross for the redemption of the elect. Hence it follows, that, in the matter of religious instruction in the schools, doctrinal teaching is willingly left to the priest, while it is considered highly important that the teacher should still be required to give instruction in Christian morals."

A third opinion was expressed by some moderate men, who, true to the ordinances of 1806, desired to make the culture of the social and Christian virtues the groundwork of instruction, and thus to prove that the religious element was not excluded from the schools. But as the ministry could not consent to this, to avoid strengthening the Groenists, they united with the liberals.

Several drafts of laws were successively presented to the chambers, without effecting a result. Four times in the course of seven years was the ministry overthrown, and meanwhile the Groenist minority was acting upon the popular mind by means of pamphlets, newspaper articles, and the circulation of petitions. They finally convinced the king that the nation was opposed to every system of school law in which the public schools were made atheistic; and this accusation too was unjust to their opponents, for a complete severance of church and state, by no means infers systematic opposition to the clergy; on the contrary, though the bill of the minister Van Reenen, which had been opposed mainly by the Groenists, went so far as even to make no mention of Christianity, yet it was drawn up, on the whole, in a sincerely Christian spirit, and was far from being indifferent to the subject. Nevertheless, the minority pre-

vailed with the king, so far that he promised his sanction to their design, and now, sure of success, they greeted in triumph the accession to the ministry, of Van der Bruggen, and Van Rappard, who were supporters of their system.

But a more intimate acquaintance with the affairs of the State, quickly moderated the zeal of the new ministers. They soon perceived that the principle of mixed schools, as it had been established by the law of 1806, was still too firmly incorporated with the habits of the people to permit the thought of its being uprooted, and they therefore now brought forward a bill, eclectic in its provisions, which neither pleased the Groenists, nor conciliated the liberals. The debate was opened on the 29th June, in the lower chamber; a debate that will form one of the most interesting portions of the religious history of Holland. We can here give only the result. What we have already said respecting the position of parties, is sufficient to indicate the different opinions that were advanced in the discussion. It may be remarked, by the way, as a surprising fact, that the language of the Catholic upon the subject, was almost always directly opposed to the views of their co-religionists, in non-protestant countries. Article 22, of the bill, (Article 23, of the law,) was adopted, the last section excepted, by a vote of 45 to 20; the conservatives of the liberal party had gained the victory. This article reads thus:

"Public instruction, while it communicates the knowledge that is needed, shall at the same time develop the understanding of the scholars, and train them to the practice of every Christian and social virtue."

"The teacher shall refrain from teaching, doing, or permitting any thing derogatory to the respect that is due the religious convictions of the non-conformists."

"Instruction in religion is left to the different sects. The use of the school buildings may be granted for this purpose, to accommodate the children that attend them, at hours not appropriated to other classes."

The section that was rejected, by a vote of 60 to 2, provided for separate instruction, (facultative splitting,) which the majority had never at all desired. It was thus expressed:

"Wherever children do not attend school on account of the religious opinions of their parents, and it is found after careful inquiry that their complaints can not otherwise be removed, a separate school may be established, if it be possible, which shall receive State support, so far as is necessary. This support shall be provided by law."

In the upper chamber the discussion was more calm; opposition was withdrawn. The law was published on 13th August, 1857, to go into operation at the commencement of the following year.

The legislature of 1857, was also occupied with various other important subjects. For several years previous, a decrease in the number of scholars had been observed, which must naturally excite attention in a country where almost all the children frequent the public schools, while elsewhere it might easily be accounted for by the supposition that the children had left the public schools in order to enter the private, which was a daily occurrence. The evidence that freedom of instruction was degenerating

into liberty to remain in ignorance, became a source of anxiety, and some of the delegates endeavored on this account to reconcile compulsory attendance at school with the principles affirmed in the Constitution. Their motto was; "instruction compulsory and gratuitous;" such is the feeling of some Belgian politicians also, who in view of similar difficulties, have been endeavoring since 1857, to effect in their country a similar solution. But the Dutch delegates did not effect their object. The 33d Article of the law merely says:

"The parish authorities shall use all possible means to induce parents, who are poor and receiving support, to send their children to school."

Several of the large cities, Rotterdam, among others, have made their support of the parents conditional upon the school-attendance of the children. Other subjects that were discussed at the same time, we will mention as occasion offers, in connection with the brief statement, which we now give, of the law of 1857.

a. *Classification of Schools.*

The common schools are either public or private, (Article 3.) The first class include those schools that are sustained, by the parishes, provinces, and the State, severally, or conjointly, (*gezamenlijk*;) the private schools are entitled to assistance from the provinces and parishes, in case of necessity, but in that case, must be open to children of all religions.

The number of schools in each parish, (Article 6,) must correspond to the wants and number of the population. The parish determines how many are *necessary*, (Article 17,) but the provincial authorities (*gedeputeerde staten*), and the government have the right to increase the number if they consider it expedient. These provisions secure, it is evident, greater certainty of instruction than does the Belgian law, but they are less precise in reference to the right of poor children to attend the schools free of expense, (Article 33.)

The warm interest felt by the legislature in the cause of instruction is shown in (Article 18,) which requires that whenever a teacher has more than 70 scholars, he shall have the assistance of an "aspirant" (*Kweekeling*, pupil;) this title is given to young men that have not yet received certificates of qualification, or, in other words, have not yet passed the official examination, but who are authorized, until they attain the required age, (eighteen years for an assistant's, and twenty-three for a teacher's diploma, Article 43,) to perform certain duties as "beginners,"—called also in Belgium "secondants." If the number of scholars exceed 100, the teacher is allowed an "assistant," and an additional aspirant if it exceeds 150; with fifty more scholars, another teacher is employed, and with a hundred more, a second assistant.

The course of study is divided into the "ordinary" and the "advanced" course. Instruction in the latter, must be given wherever possible, and where its introduction is judged to be expedient, (Article 16.) The ordinary course must embrace reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of

geometry, the Dutch language, geography, history, natural philosophy, and vocal music; while the higher course include lectures upon the elements of modern languages, the elementary mathematics, the primary principles of agriculture, gymnastics, the art of design, and for females, the usual domestic accomplishments.

The teacher is appointed (Article 22,) by the parish council, from among the candidates, three to six in number, that have been selected, after examination, by the mayors and justices, with the approval of the district superintendent.

b. Local Authorities.

The control of the schools was so skillfully and wisely arranged, under the law of 1806, that M. Cousin, in the warmth of his admiration for this "bold action," which had never suggested itself to the mind of the French legislators, could, without exaggeration, exclaim; "this is the right method of regulating common school instruction, and in popular education, is the point, that is, in my opinion, of the most vital importance, its more or less skillfully devised organization." The new law has retained the local committees, (Article 53,) there being both district and provincial superintendents, who are appointed for six years, and meet annually. Complaint might perhaps be made of the want of a general superintendent, on the ground that, on account of the continual changes to which the ministry is subject, none but a permanent officer of this kind can secure uniformity in the system of school regulations, and in their administration. The system of 1806, had in fact such a keystone, to be recognized in the established hierarchical organization of the school authorities, but it is scarcely necessary to say, that a superintendence of the schools by the clergy is now wholly out of the question in Holland.

c. Teachers.

The law of 1857, neither authorizes teachers' associations, nor directs a uniform plan of operation for the teachers' seminaries. But through the influence of the superintendents, who have generally manifested a zeal worthy of all praise, numerous teachers' societies have been formed, (in 1858, numbering 249, with 8,544 members,) with the two-fold object of affording to teachers opportunities for advanced instruction, and of disseminating the most approved methods of teaching. In the schools for the poor, pupils are selected from among the most proficient, to be trained for the office of teacher, and to these, especial attention is given. In order to obtain a certificate of proficiency, there is required a knowledge, (Article 44, 45, 46,) not only of the subjects embraced in the course of ordinary school instruction, more extended than usual, and with a more rational and thorough understanding of them, but also of pedagogy and methodics; it is also required, that the teacher, whether male, or female, be able to express himself with ease, and in a polished manner, both orally, and in writing. Nearly all the teachers' societies have of late, vied with each other in their endeavors to comply creditably with the

new requirements of the law. In several places these poor pupil-teachers supply the free schools with aspirants as assistant teachers. The parishes generally contribute to their support, and very frequently the provincial authorities also, as in Utrecht, and Amersfort. But the Royal Teachers' Seminary at Haarlem, is more especially worthy of mention, where pupils are received from all parts of the kingdom upon the recommendation of the superintendents, and formally admitted after a three months' trial, upon the satisfactory report of the director. This institution was established under a royal decree of May 31, 1816, and placed under the control of M. Prinsen, a normal instructor of great talent. Ten full scholarships of 250 florins, and fourteen half scholarships of 125 florins yearly, during the entire four years' course of study were founded for such pupils as obtained a diploma of the first degree. This school at Haarlem, has accommodations for day scholars only, (externat,) but otherwise is similar in its arrangement to the Prussian seminaries. The entire expense to the State, for its forty pupils, is 10,000 florins annually. Not only is theoretical instruction given, but actual practice in teaching; the pupils being employed in the schools of the city, for the purpose of accustoming them to their duties as teachers. The discipline is very simple, embracing only a few special regulations, and has been found all that could be desired. Perhaps the natural temperament of the Dutch will sufficiently account for this fact also. In connection with M. Prinsen, others may be mentioned who have aided in securing the success of this establishment,—among them, Mll. Van Dapperen, once a pupil of Pestalozzi, Polman, and B. Schreuder, all extensively known through their school-books, and the influence which they have had in the advancement of method among the public schools. But in addition to these schools, a system of normal instruction has now been perfected by a recent decree, which provides for three large normal seminaries, and twenty-two schools of practice, the latter, receiving an annual appropriation of 3,000 florins. The society "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," has also afforded great assistance to teachers and aspirants, by the publication of a good selection of manuals and abridgments (elementary text-books,) upon general and special subjects. Judging from their catalogue, they attach great importance to the pedagogical works of Germany.

d. *Encouragement of Teachers.*

Of the means that are made use of for the encouragement of teachers, we will allude only to the presentation of gifts, and the annual distribution of silver medals, to the most zealous.

B. STATISTICS.

According to M. Blaupot Ten Cate, the number of children that in 1855, remained without instruction, must be put at 38,000, while in 1852, there were only 21,000, or 107 to 1,000 inhabitants. But the fact that the school attendance has for several years diminished, is nevertheless certain, and must be a source of surprise to those who are acquainted with the

progress that has been made since 1806. The last report of M. van Tets, minister of the interior, accounts for this falling off by the simultaneous advance in popularity of the private schools after 1848. Since the public schools have again become to be decidedly preferred, more value seems to be placed upon the education of children, and a happy change has commenced. An increase of upward of one per cent. (sic.) in the attendance is shown by the reports of 1857, above those of 1850.

a. *Number of Schools.*

The number of common schools in the kingdom, (excepting the colonies and the archduchy of Luxemburg,) was 3,422, in 1857; among which there were 2,478 public schools, 278 private schools of the first class, and 666 of the second. The following table embraces all the information that will be desired. The total population of the kingdom on January 1st, 1857, was 3,298,317.

PROVINCES.	Public Schools.	Private Schools.		Total No. of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Free Scholars.	Per cent. of Free Schools.
		I. Class.	II. Class.				
North Brabant,	298	27	100	425	49,460	14,744	29.8
Gelderland, . . .	337	44	61	442	54,094	17,454	32.3
South Holland,	259	78	147	484	67,540	31,267	46.3
North Holland,	294	42	174	510	57,575	27,963	48.6
Zealand,	137	4	19	160	19,253	6,269	32.6
Utrecht,	81	24	54	159	17,319	7,227	41.7
Friesland,	358	3	9	370	38,978	13,360	31.7
Groningen,	207	20	28	255	31,209	10,840	31.7
Over Yssel, . . .	210	16	19	245	23,025	8,587	26.8
Drenthe,	135	7	4	146	14,008	2,636*	18.8
Limburg,	162	13	51	226	24,868	6,715	27.0
Total,	2,478	278	666	3,422	406,329	146,062	36.0

This total of 406,329 scholars, who were in attendance on January 15, 1857, was composed of 228,353 boys, and 177,976 girls. On the 15th July, of the same year, (the summer term,) the number had diminished to 317,618; of which, 158,721 were boys, and 158,897 were girls. These numbers include those who attended the evening schools, (24,868 on 15th January; 18,070 boys, and 6,798 girls,) as well as those who only attended the evening lectures, (numbering 27,272 at the same date, of whom 19,749 were boys, and 7,523 were girls.)

The ratio of the number of scholars to the whole population, is, in winter, about as one to eight; in summer, as one to ten. The first class of private schools, include the "Diakonieschulen," i. e., such as are supported by the revenues of endowment funds, (170;) those that are sustained by the society "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," (17;) and some that belong to private persons, (91.) The schools of the second class, are generally of the latter description.

In this list there are also 784 infant schools, (Warteschulen,) of which,

* Not including 3,336 scholars who pay but half.

the one at Zwolle, has long been well known; 152 schools for review, (Herhalingscholen,)—originated by the society, "Tot nut van 'talgemeen," and intended for adults, with the design of preventing that frequent relapse into ignorance that is seen in the later years of those who have left the usual schools; 118 Sunday schools; 71 individual schools, for mechanics; 127 public singing schools; 23 schools for gymnastics; and finally, 35 boarding schools, 286 boarding and day schools, (171 for boys, and 115 for girls.)*

b. *Number of Teachers.*

The number of instructors, in 1857, was 7,391, consisting of 6,480 male teachers, of every kind, and 911 female teachers. The ratio of teachers to scholars was, on the 15th January, as one to fifty-five; on the 15th July, as one to forty-seven. The new law provides liberally, as it should, for the teachers of the schools. Their salary can not be less than 400 florins, (\$160,) nor that of an assistant, less than 200 florins. Some teachers receive more than 1,000 florins per year. The minimum established by law in Belgium, is 200 francs, (\$38,) somewhat less than one-fourth that of Holland! Moreover, the teacher in Holland, has the right of appeal, whenever the district is disinclined to provide him a suitable residence, or pay him the equivalent which is his due; in such case, he can make complaint to the standing provincial committee, who settle the matter conclusively, (Article 19.)

c. *Expense of Schools.*

It would be difficult to state accurately the cost of the schools, inasmuch as their support is by law (Article 31,) obligatory upon the parishes. The appropriations of the State toward their maintenance amounted, in 1857, to 156,000 florins, (\$62,000.) This, too, was a subject, that gave occasion to a lively discussion in the chambers, in 1857. The requirement certainly imposes a very heavy burden upon the local authorities; still, they can, to a certain extent, evade the law, since they are at liberty, (Article 3, § 3,) to support private schools, and the danger, therefore, is not so great as it, at first glance, appears; besides, (Article 36,) of the law declares that whenever the government is satisfied, by information derived from the standing committee and the provincial authorities, that a parish will be obliged to submit to great sacrifices in order to put its common schools in operation, as it should be done, the State and province shall aid the parish by an appropriation of half the amount necessary. There is, however, something arbitrary in these regulations, though they possess this advantage, that they express definitely the extent of liability, while in Belgium, the parish, and the State, are in mutual opposition; for when even a wealthy parish has col-

* We mention, as examples of these female boarding schools, the one at Voorschoten, near Leyden, under the patronage of Queen Sophie,—the school at Haarlem, and the one long established at Wageningen. It is a peculiarity deserving of note, that nearly all female schools are conducted by female teachers exclusively, and are under the supervision of the royal superintendent.—*Editor.*

lected the additional tax, required by law for the support of its schools, it not unfrequently claims that it has fulfilled all its obligations, and that the State must contribute whatever may be needed beyond, notwithstanding that sound common sense would indicate that the State ought to give its aid only where the resources of the parish were not sufficient. But this common sense decision, does not accord with the wording of the law; and right here, in this difference between the two laws, is clearly shown the difference in the political characteristics of the two people. In Belgium, the parish is as independent as it is possible for a subordinate administration to be; in Holland, the love of order and a desire for a uniform distribution of taxes, serve as a counterpoise to their feeling of independence, and perhaps exert, as time will teach us, too strong an influence. By (Article 32,) of the law of 13th August, 1857, the parish is made responsible for the following expenses;—the salaries of the teachers and assistant teachers; compensation for the services of aspirants; the erection and repairs of school-buildings; the providing school furniture, books, &c.; the heating and lighting the school-buildings; the erection and repairs of the teacher's residence, or an equivalent therefor, in case the parish does not furnish a dwelling-house; a valuable contribution to the pension fund; and the office expenses of the local school committee. In 1857, the State contributed 25,490 florins 25 cents, and the provinces 52,581 florins 17 cents, for the erection and improvement of school-houses in the parishes.

C. MISCELLANEOUS.

a. *Teachers' Certificates.*

A provincial jury, composed of the superintendent of the province, and four district superintendents, meets semi-annually for the examination of aspirants. Foreigners, as well as native born, are allowed this certificate. A testimonial of good moral character, and the certificate of baptism are required to be produced. The subjects on which the candidate passes an examination, are expressed in the certificate. There are four kinds, alike for males and females, viz.: the teacher's certificate, (registration fee, 10 florins;) the assistant teacher's, (5 florins;) the private teacher's certificate of proficiency in different branches, (5 florins;) or in a single branch, (3 florins.) These certificates are valid throughout the kingdom. A private teacher may be allowed to teach in a public school, writing, arithmetic, singing, and female domestic accomplishments.

b. *Course of Instruction.*

The passage of the new law has been too recent to permit us to form an opinion of its actual operation. But as the spirit of the system, as respects the method of instruction, has remained much the same, independent of this or that official ordinance, the testimony of observers like Cousin, Namon de la Sagra, (*Journey to Holland, &c., 1839*), Gürlitz, and others, still retains, in general, its value. We have also consulted the

ministerial reports. The influence of Pestalozzi has continued predominant. The method of simultaneous instruction has met with more favor in Holland, than the monitorial, "which certainly communicates information," as Van der Ende, says, "but does not educate; but the object of instruction is education." But as respects method, the Hollanders are peculiarly eclectic; their calm temperament, their prudent and considerate character, protect them from any ill-bestowed admiration; they are no friends to a stupid adherence to ancient usages, but they would listen to the teachings of experience, and examine before they decide. Imagine yourself in the position of the child,—adapt your instruction to the gradual development of his faculties, and never lose sight of his destiny as a citizen and a man; teach him not merely to read, but put him in a condition to reason understandingly upon what he has read; these simple principles are sufficient, in the opinion of the Hollanders, to destroy forever the pretensions of the Lancasterian system. They have retained nothing of it, but merely the principle of repetition in some physical branches. But the attempt to avoid one extreme, exposes them to the danger of falling into another. And so the influence of the spirit evinced by the regulations of 1806, might be looked upon as in some degree dangerous, so long as the new system was carried out with all that zeal that is wont to be called forth by newly achieved success. It has been asserted that the teachers, in their desire to make instruction in the public schools such as should improve the understanding, would produce a change in the character of the people, make them peevish and conceited, and dissatisfied with their condition; that the culture and development of the finer feelings would be checked rather than promoted by a method of instruction in which, in direct neglect of all moral training, the intellect and the formalism of logical deductions always receive the chief attention; and finally, it has been apprehended that were the habits thus created to be carried too generally into unrestrained practice, sooner or later discipline would be endangered, and the respect that is due to others would be supplanted by insolence and insubordination. It must be admitted that these apprehensions have many times been verified, though not so frequently as has been represented; and as proof of this, we may point as well to that entire absence of the ideal, that is characteristic of many of the Dutch, as to the ultra-rationalism, and much more to the selfish (individualistic) tendencies that are now becoming prevalent among the young men of the cities. Some may be disposed to ascribe these manifestations to national phlegm, which prefers the culture of the intellect to that of the sensibilities, and the wide-spread spirit of Calvinism; and they may assert, in fine, that this system of teaching is the best adapted to the character of the people.—Granted!—but it is not well to encourage by a partial course of treatment, those propensities, which, indulged too far, become faults. It can not be concealed that many very intelligent men in Holland are becoming daily more strongly of this opinion, and in this we recognize a returning current of feeling that promises much for the future. Nevertheless, the reform of 1806, has merited the

thanks of the people of the Netherlands. An intelligent administration, ever on the watch to arouse a spirit of emulation among its officers; zealous teachers, who in general are more highly educated than those in many other countries; a strict discipline, that is based more upon the moral influence exerted by the teachers than upon any express regulations;—these agencies were sufficient to assure improvement and to accomplish a brilliant result. But above all, we may rest confident in the future; the sound common sense of the nation forms a counterbalance to the radicalism of the new regulations, and on the other hand, the views and experience of other nations have gradually softened the obstinacy of old prejudices, and introduced more of life into the methods of instruction.*

c. Pensions.

Teachers employed in the public schools are allowed a pension on reaching the age of sixty-five years, after forty years of service. The annual deposit in the State treasury, amounts to two per cent. The pension is increased each year, by about one sixtieth of the salary, but can never exceed two-thirds of it.

D. CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The public schools hold generally a higher position than the private schools. The reason of this is simple, and M. Cousin has made it very prominent by a bare statement of facts. "At first the establishment of schools, in which charges were made for instruction, was left to private enterprise, and they were almost everywhere private schools. Inasmuch as the schools for the poor were not only sustained by the public authorities, but also directed and controlled by them, the school regulations were drawn up by men who were well skilled in such business. The rules were strictly followed. The teachers had been trained in good schools, or in teachers' seminaries; the method of teaching was carefully watched; the discipline maintained in the schools were excellent; what was learned, was learned not superficially, but thoroughly. The poor schools, became, therefore, in a short time, in many places, better than the tuition schools under private management, and the unusual result followed, that the children of the middle class were not so well educated as those of the poor. Such a violation of order would in the end have produced an actual disturbance in society; and to avoid this danger, the cities established public tuition schools—a measure that has been productive of the best results, both on account of the emulation which it has excited between the different kinds of schools, and because those families, which are not compelled by poverty, or in their poverty have too much self-respect to send to the poor schools, but still can not afford to pay the tolerably high charges of most of the private schools, find in these public schools the

*The reader will find farther information in the work of M. Gültz, an impartial and intelligent writer, who is as ready to promote improvements in the educational system of his country as to combat the rank prejudices that have risen up to oppose them. This work contains a list of the best school-books used in Holland, among which is a number prepared from the German.

benefits of instruction at a moderate cost, suited to their circumstances, and not offensive to their feelings." It is worthy of remark that the sacrifices which the cities made, were soon recovered; as in the case of Rotterdam, which imposed a weekly fee of only twenty cents, (= eight cents, American,) upon each scholar, yet the income from the tuition schools, whose expenses amount to about 6,500 florins, yields a surplus above the expenses, which is appropriated by the city to its children's asylums. These tuition schools are now, as we have seen, everywhere prevalent; public confidence in them is continually becoming more firmly fixed, while every year sees the discontinuance of a number of the private institutions.

II. SECONDARY OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOLS.

A. LEGISLATION.

Instruction in the intermediate schools of Holland stands in close relation to the course of study in the universities; the royal ordinance of August 2, 1815,—by which the course of study was entirely changed,—embraced alike institutions of two grades, viz., the so-called "Latin schools," which correspond to the German gymnasia,—and the Universities, with some high schools of like rank, but which confer no degree, and are known as "Atheniums." We have to do here only with the Latin schools, and will afterward notice to some extent the different special schools. If the democratic spirit of Holland is manifested in the organization of its common schools, the strong influence of old customs and old prejudices, makes itself felt in the arrangement of the higher schools. Intermediate school instruction is confined entirely to the cities, and every city esteems it an honor to have a Latin school; it might be supposed that this was one of the ancient prerogatives of citizenship. The Latin school is under the control of a board of overseers, who nominate to the city council the candidates for vacant teacherships. This council appoints and pays the teachers. In regard to the university, the state possesses the influence that is due to it; but for the schools, it can only issue ordinances relating to the objects and means of instruction, and require the securities that are thought necessary. Each school has a rector and an associate rector, (the provisor and censor of the French lyceum,) and one or more professors in addition, according to the means of the institution, and the number of pupils. Very often the rector is the only professor, in which case he instructs the first class, and the associate rector the second. These officers must have obtained the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, which requirement virtually excludes the mathematics from the highest place in the school. Of the other teachers, it is only required that they have the candidates, degree.* These institutions are designed

* Each faculty can confer two academical degrees; 1, the candidates' degree, which is the lowest. This degree in literature, (in litteris,) from the faculty of philosophy, can be obtained at the shortest, in one year after entering upon the academical course, and is made a condition to admission to the study of theology and law; whoever wishes to study medicine must have received the candidates, degree in mathematics and natural philosophy; and in order to become a preacher, one must have the same degree in literature and theology. 2, the Doctors'

only for day-scholars (keine internate;) boarding schools are not looked upon with favor by the Dutch, in whom love of family and home life is an essential characteristic. The course of instruction includes principally the Latin and Greek languages, and in respect to these there is left little to be desired. Of the remaining branches, until within a short time, this could not be said. By the ninth and tenth articles of the ordinance of 1815, it was required that the pupils should, at the close of their daily exercises in Latin and Greek, receive instruction in the elements of mathematics, in geography, and in ancient and modern history;—but there is none in natural philosophy, none in the modern languages!

The amount of instruction in mathematics was left entirely to the rector. It was considered a subordinate department, and was usually taught by the professors of other branches, who received therefor an additional salary. In case of necessity, a special teacher was provided, but the position was an inferior one, and he received no tuition fees. This was the condition of things before the separation of Holland and Belgium. And what was the result? Instruction in the mathematics, as it had become reduced to almost nothing in the Latin schools, fell into neglect at the universities also. This occasioned frequent and earnest complaint, especially in Belgium, for many still remembered the more perfect organization of the French lyceum. The government heeded these complaints, and by an ordinance of 9th September, 1826, included a knowledge of arithmetic, algebra and geometry, among what was required for admission to the academical course. Unfortunately the law permitted the enrolment of a student, even without a satisfactory mathematical preparation, if the professor of mathematics at the university only declared that the student was capable of following his lectures. "If human nature is the same in Holland that it is in France," says M. Cousin, very justly, upon this point, "every examination that is made by one person only, is worthless. How can it be expected that a professor of mathematics, to whose chamber comes a student of philosophy, of law, or of theology, will carry his stoicism so far as to refuse to him or his whole family, after the thousand times repeated intercessions that will be made, a certificate that can in no way prejudice mathematics, but the denial of which must injure the overseer of the university of which the professor is himself a member?" It was to be expected that this certificate would never be refused, and that the students, knowing this, would never take the pains to deserve any other. But while the error here lay in too great lenity, the mistake was made on the other hand, of excessive strictness in demanding of a doctor of philosophy evidence of his capacity to *teach* with success the elements of arithmetic, algebra and geometry. They failed to obtain their object, from adhering too closely to the letter of the ordinance of 1815. The reform plan of 1826, meanwhile remained in operation; it was not degree, which presupposes the former. This degree is essential to the attainment of many offices and positions, and it also entitles the possessor to many marks of distinction; in an assembly of jurists, for example, one that has the doctorate, takes precedence of those members who have not received the degree.

until twenty years later, in 1845, that a new committee was appointed to draft a new plan, which, however, was very far from receiving all the votes of the chamber; and to increase the complication, there had now been raised the question respecting religious instruction. Two concurrent circumstances favored the reform plan, and were the means of partially effecting what should have been done long before. Many towns had added to their schools an industrial department, a kind of real-school, (with a four years' course,) and increased also the amount of mathematical study required of the pupils in the Latin schools. These improvements were made in the year 1843. Moreover a royal decree of May 23, 1845, required that an annual examination should be made of the proficiency of the students in all the departments of gymnasial instruction, before a central committee, who should make their report to the minister of the interior. But while it was with reason expected that the edifice would soon receive its cap-stone, this commencement, which had already in 1852 suffered important changes, was suddenly demolished by the minister, Van Reenen. It has been said that it would be restored in the next law. However this may be, the professors are zealous in their endeavors to remedy the faults of the present arrangement. But whatever may be done, the organization of the greater number of the small Latin schools is, and will always remain, necessarily very defective. For how can it be otherwise, while there are schools which number only a rector and professor, in the same person, with some three, five, seven, eight, perhaps fifteen, or twenty scholars? Holland could here follow the example of Belgium, where instruction in the ancient languages is perhaps less advanced, but where on the other hand, since the centralization of 1850, and the establishment of industrial schools, giant strides have been taken at least in respect to the course of study and the conformity of the general plan to the proposed object. Moreover it should not be forgotten that the course of instruction in the gymnasia is not designed merely to prepare youth for the studies of the university; and that the academical lectures require that the hearer should bring with him something more than a certain amount of knowledge of the ancient languages, however valuable this possession may be.

a. Classification of Schools.

The intermediate schools are divided into Latin schools, properly so called—which are regulated in accordance with the royal decree of October 6, 1843,—and gymnasia, provisional and definitive. These institutions are not equally complete, but are all arranged upon the same principle. In one school we find a special teacher for the mathematics, and professors for the modern languages; and in some, Hebrew even is taught; in another there is a rector only, or at best, assisted by a single aspirant. As at the time when M. Cousin made his journey, and found in the school at the Hague one professor for each class, who was obliged to teach all the branches of the course with the exception of mathematics, and in the school at Utrecht, saw, on the other hand, the system of

departmental instructors carried to the extreme, so at this day there exists manifold differences as respects internal arrangement and extent of study. In the principal gymnasia, as at the Hague, Amsterdam and Utrecht, there are usually five Latin classes; generally the scholars remain in the upper or rhetorical class (*Prima*,) twice as long as in the others, so that there are in all, six years of study. M. Cousin, in the upper class of one institution, met with those ranks (*ordines*,) in which instruction was carried gradually forward in such a way that the pupils learned by degrees to labor self-dependently, and thus became better fitted to enter upon the life of the university. In the first division weekly compositions (hence call "*Hebdomadarien*") were prepared; in the second, monthly exercises only were required, while in the third the instruction received was in the form of general directions merely. Instruction was given more by informal discourses, than by lectures. This method favored most effectually the development of each individual in accordance with the peculiar bent of his intellect and disposition, and was on this account an admirable means of education, and produced a class of well-trained, capable scholars. It is evident, however, that this method can be followed only when the number of pupils is limited. Since that time there have been no changes of importance; which may be considered fortunate, for there can be no better instruction, so long as the system can be pursued judiciously. The number of scholars in attendance at the Latin schools is always considerable, and is made up in general, of spirited, wide-awake youth, who know what labor is.

The learned professions are not overlooked in Holland as they are in other countries, and the young men who enter them, have fewer disappointments to fear. The students have a session of three hours in the morning, and as many, four days in the week, in the afternoon—but only two during the three winter months. The vacations continue six weeks, and in their arrangement are accommodated, so far as possible, to local circumstances. In 1857, there were taught in seventeen Latin schools, only those branches which are prescribed by the ordinance of organization, viz., Latin and Greek, elementary mathematics, history and mythology; no especial instruction was given in their own language; in five others this was added; two afforded instruction also in French,—three, in German,—two, in English,—and two, in Hebrew. Only in two schools was natural history taught. In all the provisory gymnasia these four living languages are taught, and in three of them natural history and Italian book-keeping. Finally, the definitive gymnasia give instruction likewise in the same four modern languages, and at Dortrecht, the Italian in addition; at four gymnasia, Hebrew is taught,—at eight, natural history,—and at three, book-keeping. At Rotterdam and Maastricht, commercial instruction is also given; at the latter place and at Deventer, instruction in chemistry and mathematics; at two gymnasia linear drawing is taught,—and at one, calligraphy. In all these institutions there were two departments, (*Afdeelingen*,) of which one included the Latin

classes,—the other, (as in Belgium,) the practical studies, which were continued, whenever possible, through four years; but only in Bois-le-duc and in Maastricht was the course of the study in the second department fully organized and separated from the first.

b. *Regulation of the Schools.*

A superintendent of the Latin schools is attached to the department of the interior. There exists no normal seminary for the special training of the teachers in the intermediate schools. In regard to this, as well as the salaries, tuition fees, &c., almost the same may be said of Holland, as of Belgium before the passage of the law of June, 1850. The differences of minor importance it will not be worth the while to particularize.*

B. STATISTICS.

The condition of the Latin schools and gymnasia during the school year 1857-8, is shown in the following table.

PROVINCES.	Latin Schools.	Former Gymnasia.	Indicative Gymnasia.	No. of Prof's.	Scholars in 1st Dep't.	Scholars in 2nd Dep't.	Mixed scholars.	Total scholars.	Pop. of the cities.
North Brabant,	10	1	1	31	166	48	214	75,402
Geldern,.....	9	1	4	42	169	78	247	101,251
South Holland,	2	...	7	57	221	122	23	366	203,516
North Holland,	1	2	2	25	101	62	4	167	314,810
Zealand,.....	2	7	25	8	33	23,185
Utrecht,.....	2	12	96	96	60,090
Friesland,.....	5	1	1	17	108	8	116	60,061
Over Yessel, ..	4	2	1	27	101	118	219	61,641
Gröningen,....	2	12	67	21	33	121	40,653
Drenthe,.....	2	6	30	38	11	79	11,907
Limburg,.....	1	16	54	94	148	27,925
.... Total,	33	7	23	252	1,138	597	71	1,806	980,441

In the year 1817, there were 68 Latin schools in the northern provinces of what then was the kingdom of the Netherlands; from 1831 to 1835, there were 62 within the limits of the present kingdom, (with 1,315 scholars in 1831, and 1,255 in 1835;) in 1848, the number of Latin schools was 71, with 1,888 scholars (1,563 in the first department, and 325 in the second;) in 1849, there were but 70, with 1,887 scholars, (1,500 and 387 in the two departments;) as several of the schools had no scholars, they have been discontinued since the death of their rectors. The intelligent reader will draw more than one important inference from a comparison of the figures in the above table. In some provinces all literary studies are concentrated in large institutions, as in the Athenæum at Maastricht in Limburg, a completely and ably organized school with sixteen professors; in other provinces, the whole are scattered in fragments, and the insignificant means of these small schools is an effectual hindrance to any actual advance in accordance with the spirit of the age. It will be noticed also that the numbers of the scholars in the first and

* See Public Instruction in Belgium, Vol. XV., p. 675.

second departments have an inverse ratio, compared with those of Belgium.

Limburg has literary institutions which are not included in the above table; the Royal College at Roermond, (with a boarding school and instruction in the Catholic religion,) the Industrial School at Venloo, and the Seminary at Herzogenrath, on the borders of Prussia. This last mentioned institution, founded in 1831 by Van Brommel, bishop of Liege, was originally a seminary for priests; but since the ratification of the treaty of the twenty-four articles of 1839, and the annexation of this portion of Limburg to Holland, the theological students have removed to St. Trond. King William II., however, would not permit a school to decline that had once flourished upon the territory that had now fallen to him. "Je vous maintiendrai" cried he, in the words of the device of his house, when he visited Herzogenrath, in 1851. And so a large school has again been organized in the noble buildings of the former abbey of Rolduc, under a grant made by the bishop of Roermond. It includes a theological seminary, (with six humanity, and two philosophy classes,) an educational Institute in two departments, (one German and the other Dutch,) with a four years' course of study in each, and a Teachers' seminary. The instruction, as far as the branches peculiar to the intermediate school is concerned, is as thorough as in the Belgium atheneums. In addition, philosophy, Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Italian language are taught; the last is merely optional (*facultativ*.) The corps of instructors numbers twenty-five, without including the teachers of drawing, music, and gymnastics. In 1851, there were 300 students in the humanity department, 126 in the Institute, (86 German and 40 Dutch,) and 30 in the Teachers' seminary. The humanity students, after finishing the course here, go very generally to Löwen, or Münster, to complete their studies. There are also many private boarding schools, especially in North Brabant and Geldern. There exist no public schools for higher female education.

C. MISCELLANEOUS REMARKS.

a. *Course of Study.*

The grammars most generally used are those of Dorn Seiffen (professor at Amsterdam,) Bake, Zumpt and Madvig; we meet less frequently with those of Vossius, Weytingh, and Bröder. Weytingh, Döring, Bake, and Reitz are preferred in the study of composition. The smaller lexicons of Scheller and Kärcher, translated by Bosche, are very frequently used; occasionally also, Georges, Noël, Kärcher, edited by Terptru, Scheller unabridged, Petiscus, &c. The official reports of the jury complain that very often two or three grammars are found in use in the same institution, and that the scholars at the close of their studies usually show in their compositions more correctness than understanding of what constitutes Latin elegance. The classics most frequently translated by the higher classes are—Sallust and Cicero, (*orationes selectæ, de amicitia, de senectute, de officiis;*) Ovid's *Metamorphoses*; Virgil's *Æneid*; the Odes, and rarely, the satires

and epistles of Horace; and occasionally Livy and Tacitus. Until within a few years, the prose writers were studied with more attention than the poets; prosody and metrics were almost entirely neglected. The "*Gradus ad Parnassum*" was not found among the school-books. But now a marked advance has been made; and in the rhetorical classes it has by degrees become customary to compare Dutch translations in verse with the originals, (as the *Metamorphoses*, by Bilderdijk;—the *Odes* of Horace, by Van Winter; the *Æneid*, by Madam Van Steek,) and to point out to the students the rules of Dutch versification, while at the same time their knowledge of the prosody and rhythm of the Latin language was made more thorough. On the other hand more importance is placed here than in Belgium, upon Latin composition and speaking. In Greek, after two years have been spent in learning the paradigms and rules, two more are devoted principally to the translation of Homer and Xenophon, in which a knowledge is also gained of syntax; in the rhetorical class the course is completed by the translation of some one of the tragedies.

Frequently a portion of Isocrates, or of Lysias, is also taken up,—sometimes one of the biographical dialogues of Plato. The theory of the accents is not neglected; nor prosody, in the reading of the poets. More methodical and accurately progressive, than rich in variety, the instruction given by the professors of Holland is thorough, and produces its appropriate effect, as is shown by the style of the majority of the academical dissertations. Pains are taken to inspire the pupils in the Latin schools with an interest in the writings of the ancients, while teaching them the history, in a condensed form, of classical literature. The manual of Weytingh is preferred in the Latin schools of the whole country. As a highly valued work made use of toward the close of the course, we may add the "*Rhetorica contracta*" of Vossius; also the "*Præcepta stilii bene latini*" of Scheller, and, by the same author, the "*Inleiding tot het lezen, van de Schriften der Ouden*," (Introduction to the reading of the classica.) Zealous attention is now given to instruction in the native language, which for a long time was regarded as of secondary importance. In respect to mathematics there yet remains much to be done. Ancient history and geography, mythology and antiquities, are of necessity, and fortunately, associated with the study of literature. National history too is receiving more general attention. Still it can be said with truth that many a scholar of the public schools is more familiarly acquainted with the actual world in those relations in which he will be called upon to labor, than his more advanced school-fellow in the Latin schools. If Holland, which seems to accept German ideas with increasing readiness, were only imbued with the spirit in which the organization of the gymnasia in most of the allied states has been effected, there would be nothing more to desire. It is remarkable how persistently this people, prone to regard only the actual and practical, has clung to the old idea that realistic instruction is to be avoided as far as possible, while the study of the humanities is alone to be considered as effectual

to the harmonious culture of the human faculties, and as a preparation for the duties of life and future studies. The eyes of the people are now opening; but it would seem that Holland still remains so proud of its ancient philological reputation that it is determined to protect from every profane touch and from every attempt at removal, whatever has been devised for the purpose of preserving the remains of that reputation and perpetuating the remembrance of it.

b. *Special Schools.*

There still remain to be mentioned several special schools, differing very much in character, which are more or less nearly on a level with the intermediate schools, or even rise above them, but which still can not be properly included among the academical institutions. In connection with the army there are organized schools of every grade; the *Instructie-bataillon*, with 786 pupils in 1857, for the children of soldiers and officers of all ranks, in which instruction in the Malay language is given to those who intend to enter the East India service; schools for the militia, with 8,587 scholars; and also for the inferior officers, with 70 pupils in the scientific department. Ranking above these, there are the Royal Military Academy, with 322 cadets in 1858-9, the Royal Marine Institute at Williamsoord, with 181 pupils, and the Seaman's school at Flushing, with 49 pupils. There are, besides these, several other marine schools. At the Royal Academy at Delft, engineers and officers for the colonial governments are educated; this is a school of a higher grade, excellently managed, as is every other national establishment, designed to supply an immediate want. Of schools of military medical science, and of hospital and veterinary practice, there is no want in Holland. Gröningen possesses a school of agriculture; Amsterdam like Antwerp, in Belgium, an Institute of trades and industry. The institution for the deaf and dumb at Gröningen, has attained a deserved reputation; in 1857-8, it numbered 143 pupils of which 110 were instructed gratuitously, 27 paid from ten to fifty florins, and six paid 100 florins or more. Two other institutions of the same kind are located at St. Michelsgestel, and at Rotterdam, with 80 and 40 pupils respectively, in the same year. These are controlled by commissioners, and sustained principally by voluntary contributions; they are permitted also to receive bequests and donations. The German method of instruction is generally used, as appears from the manual recently issued; "*Spraak en Lesorfeningen ten Dienste van doofstomme Kindren*," (Exercises in speaking and reading for the use of deaf and dumb children.) The Institution for the Blind, at Amsterdam, also deserves notice. It had in 1857-8 no less than 65 pupils—36 boys and 29 girls. With these, as with the deaf and dumb, practical instruction is associated with the teachings of the school-room. Connected with the institution, is an asylum for such of the poor as are not capable, after leaving the institution, of providing for their own wants. Finally, the government has made provision for the instruction of criminals in the prisons, guard houses, and local jails. Of 17,869 prisoners in 1857, instruction was given to 2,972. Of the remainder,

8,390 were considered as sufficiently well educated, and 6,507 were exempted on account of old age and sickness. Forty-two teachers were employed in the civil and military prisons.

c. Atheneums.

The Atheneum, properly so called, at Amsterdam, with 118 pupils, in 1857-8, and the one at Deventer, with 32 students, are in reality from the character of the instruction there given, universities upon a small scale. The institution at Deventer may be said to bear the same relation to the three state universities at Leyden, Gröningen and Utrecht, that the small Latin school does to the larger gymnasium. Francker and Harderwick, have also their atheneums. With the exception of the atheneum at Amsterdam, known as the "Atheneum Illustre," which is an indispensable institution to so large a city, these are but the relics of a splendor that is past. They may be of benefit, inasmuch as they furnish a means of support to a number of talented men whose resources would otherwise be small; but this division, this isolation of forces, which if united would be more than doubled in efficiency, is always to be deprecated. For a proof of this we need but to examine the condition of the three great universities of Holland.

D. CONCLUDING REMARKS.

The second section of the Reform Bill, which was carried through in 1829, but never went into operation in consequence of the events that resulted in the dismemberment of the kingdom of the Netherlands as defined by the allied powers in 1815, reads as follows; "The design of the intermediate schools is three-fold—to prepare youth for a course of academical study, to supply the want of a careful education to those who do not desire an academical degree, and lastly to impart practical information to those who purpose devoting themselves to business, to industrial and mechanical trades, or to the other useful occupations of civil life." Belgium, which since 1830 has had to establish every thing anew, and being engaged more in industrial occupations than in commerce, considers applied science more necessary than does its neighbor, with the exception of navigation, has never lost sight of these considerations, and has finally carried them into actual operation by legislative enactments. The better minds in Holland have also appreciated the advantages of this course, and by degrees have successfully attempted improvements of a like character; but as yet they have not succeeded in introducing a uniform system. Holland possesses an excellent system of public instruction and universities, which still in general prove themselves worthy of their ancient renown, but their progress is restricted so long as the course of instruction in the immediate schools is not by law rendered complete, and made to harmonize with the progressive movements of the age. Moreover if the government proclaims the freedom, to a greater or less extent, of instruction, it must also provide institutions that shall afford every facility for the satisfaction of the wants of all classes, especially if it reserves to

itself the right to employ in its own service the talent and future abilities of the educated. And it is on this very account that the question respecting secondary instruction is at this time one of such importance in Holland. If it be desired to attain a result that shall be really advantageous, it will not do, resting upon the constitution, to leave the parishes to their own resources, for the sake of avoiding opposition; it is necessary that the Latin schools, small and irregularly scattered over the country, should disappear, and give place to preparatory schools, (Pro-gymnasias,) where these are needed, but especially to institutions corresponding to the intermediate schools of Belgium, or to the real and burgher schools of Germany. Should a number of such gymnasia be established, they must also be ably managed, and completely furnished, so as to realize the ideal of the men of 1829. Instruction in Latin and Greek will lose nothing by this, and the close connection that exists between the three grades of instruction will no longer be interrupted. If to day the number of scholars in the Latin schools be compared with the population of the cities which sustain these institutions, (saying nothing of other cities,) one will be astonished at the disproportion, and must come to the conclusion that the greater portion of the citizens are content with the education received at the public schools. This is to be regretted. For as primary instruction, in accordance with the principles already explained, should not be raised too high, so also the wealthy class ought not to fall below their proper grade of mental culture. A rigid limitation in the education of the several classes of society would be equivalent to a creation of caste, and would prove a dangerous experiment. A continual gradation throughout is therefore essential to a national system of education, and there is no other way of effecting this than to perfect the course of popular study by an addition of general information, and the classical course, by the needed complement of instruction upon practical subjects. This connecting element is provided by a judicious organization of the system of intermediate instruction.

LUXEMBURG AND LIMBURG.

THE GRAND-DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG, anciently a German earldom, elevated to the rank of a duchy in 1354, purchased by the Duke of Burgundy in 1444, and ceded by Austria in 1797 to France, was assigned to the house of Orange in 1815, in indemnification for territory ceded to Prussia and Nassau. In the revolution of 1830 it was divided into two portions, the eastern part (1,012 square miles and 188,000 inhabitants in 1860) remaining with Holland.

THE DUCHY OF LIMBURG, anciently an earldom, inherited by the Duke of Brabant in 1280, and subsequently annexed to Burgundy, and with that duchy came under the sway of Spain, and then of Austria, until by the peace of Westphalia it was ceded to the Republic of the United Provinces. It had an area of 852 square miles, with 198,000 inhabitants.

The same views which have governed the more advanced educationists of Holland in regard to secondary schools have prevailed in the Archduchy of Luxemburg, which although belonging to the house of Orange, still has its own legislature and government, owing to its position in the German confederacy. Public instruction is there admirably organized, and in fact every class of society has its own. There are no universities, but the course of instruction at the Atheneum of Luxemburg, (with some 370 students,) is sufficiently extended to fit young men for the candidates' degree in literature and the sciences; the degrees are conferred by a local jury, who are governed by the Belgian regulations. This Atheneum, which has twenty professors and four tutors, is as perfectly organized as the better gymnasia of Prussia. Diekirch has a preparatory school, (Pro-gymnasium) with eight professors, four tutors, and four classes; Echternach possesses a Latin and a real school, and also an agricultural school. A teachers' seminary is established for the training of those who are to become public school teachers. A superintending committee of public instruction, assisted by a subordinate standing committee, preside over and manage the whole. The superintendence is conducted generally as in Belgium; and in both countries alike, have the traditions of Holland left a deep impression upon popular instruction. A common language and daily intercourse with the Germans have also, for some years past, exerted a marked influence upon the Luxemburg character.

ROYAUME DE HOLLANDE

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LAW OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

THE LAW AND GENERAL REGULATIONS OF 1806.

I. THE LAW.

Their High Mightinesses, representatives of the Batavian Republic, to all to whom these presents shall come greeting, &c.

Having received and approved of the proposal made by the Grand Pensionary, it has been resolved to decree, as by these presents we do decree as follows:

LAW OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

ARTICLE 1. The special inspection of primary instruction shall be confided, throughout the whole extent of the Batavian Republic, to functionaries who shall be called school inspectors, and who shall carry that inspection into effect, either concurrently or conjointly, according as the situation shall require, with other persons or commissions, according to the nature of the schools; the whole nevertheless under the chief superintendence of the Grand Pensionary, or, in his name, of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, and under the superintendence of the provincial authorities.

ART. 2. The provincial authorities shall take care that, throughout the whole extent of their province, young persons shall have every means of receiving a suitable education; without however, by an unlimited permission, allowing the number of teachers and of schools to be too great, especially in the rural districts.

ART. 3. They, as well as the parochial (*commune*) authorities, shall endeavor to ameliorate, and give security to, the condition of the teachers; according to such means as are at their disposal, or according to such as shall be supplied by the government, in case of need. They shall further take pains to encourage the adoption of the best system of education in the primary schools, to establish schools of industry in connection with the public schools, and maintain such as are already in existence in workhouses.

ART. 4. The school inspectors living in the same province, shall constitute the Board of Primary Instruction for that province.

ART. 5. Besides the power vested in the provincial authorities to appoint out of their own body a committee to watch over the primary schools, they may appoint from among themselves a member, who shall have particular powers to that effect, who shall stand in a neutral capacity between the committee of education and the school inspector, and to whom the latter must in the first instance apply in all matters relating to the school. In the department of Holland, there shall be two or three named, viz., one for each committee therein appointed.

ART. 6. The Grand Pensionary shall fix the sum total to be granted to each board. There shall be a provision in the budget for that special purpose, and it shall cover all the expenses and disbursements by the school inspectors, when allowed by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 7. The number of members of which each board shall consist, the boundaries of the districts, and the sum which shall be allotted to each, out of

the general fund, shall be regulated by the Grand Pensionary, and may be revised and modified according to circumstances.

ART. 8. The first named members of each board, and the members who may eventually be added to it, shall be nominated by the Grand Pensionary.

ART. 9. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall submit to the Grand Pensionary all the necessary propositions concerning the different objects mentioned in the three preceding articles.

ART. 10. When a vacancy in the situation of a school inspector is to be filled up, the respective boards shall deliver to the provincial authorities a list, containing the names of two persons, who shall transmit the same to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, adding thereto such observations as may appear to them advisable; and, if they shall see fit, increasing the number of candidates by one or two persons. The Secretary of State shall submit that list to the Grand Pensionary, who shall appoint the school inspector.

ART. 11. The boards of primary instruction, the school inspectors, and all other local boards for schools which may be instituted in conformity with ulterior measures, shall take care that the law and regulations relative to primary instruction, both general, and special, be executed, and be not evaded, nor rendered inoperative, under any pretext whatsoever, in the provinces, districts, towns, or parishes, which form part of their jurisdiction. If such a case should arise, a complaint must be laid before the parochial, provincial, or national authorities, according to the exigency of the case.

ART. 12. No primary school shall be established, or shall exist, under whatsoever denomination, without express leave of the respective provincial or parochial authorities; who shall previously take the opinion and advice of the school inspector of the district, or of the local school board.

ART. 13. No one shall be allowed to teach in a primary school in the Batavian Republic, without complying with the four following conditions:—

First. He must produce one or more satisfactory certificates of good character, both as to his morals and his conduct as a citizen.

Secondly. He must have a certificate of general admission to exercise the calling of a teacher.

Thirdly. Besides such certificate of general admission, he must produce a *call, nomination, or special appointment*, to some particular school, legally obtained.

Fourthly. After having obtained such call, nomination, or special appointment, he must appear, with such proofs as may be desired, (either individual witnesses, or written testimony,) before the school inspector of his district, and before the local school board.

Tutors living in the houses of private individuals, and exclusively engaged in the education of the children of the family, are exempted.

ART. 14. All those who, after the passing of the present law, shall open a primary school, or give primary instruction, under whatever denomination, or in whatever manner it may be, in contravention of the two preceding articles, shall, for the first offense, incur a penalty of fifty florins, and for a second offense, of a hundred florins; whereof one-third shall be given to the public officer who brings the complaint, and the two remaining thirds shall be applied for the benefit of the respective local schools.

If the offenders shall be unable to pay the penalties, the judge shall have

power to inflict such other punishment as he shall deem advisable, due regard being had to the persons and the circumstances of the parties: for a third offense they shall be banished from the parish for six consecutive years.

ART. 15. The stipulations contained in Article 13, shall not apply to existing teachers legally exercising their functions, so long as they do not change their school, or their domicile; with the reserve, nevertheless, of subjecting them to the said enactments, in cases of notorious bad conduct or extreme ignorance.

ART. 16. General admission, for any department of primary instruction, can only be obtained by a previous and suitable examination before the competent authorities.

ART. 17. The calls, nominations, and special appointments shall be given by such boards as shall be hereafter determined on by the local regulation mentioned in Article 20; and in such a manner, moreover, that no call, nomination, or appointment shall take place, unless the school inspector of the district, or the local school board be duly informed thereof, and unless the certificate of general admission shall have been previously laid before the inspector.

ART. 18. All those who, having obtained a certificate of general admission, shall be guilty of neglect in the discharge of their duties; or of any infraction of, or resistance to, the law; or of notorious bad conduct; shall be punished, for the first offense, by the suspension for six weeks of the privileges of their certificate of general admission; and in case of a repetition of the offense, by that certificate being rendered null and void; and they shall be deprived of any right or advantage derivable from their call, nomination, or special appointment: and should they, notwithstanding, continue to teach, they shall be subjected to the punishments and penalties stated in Article 14.

ART. 19. The above mentioned temporary suspension or annulment of the privileges of the certificate, shall be ordered by the parochial, provincial, or national authorities competent to judge therein, upon a motion to that effect in the provincial board of education, or in the local school board; who shall confer, if necessary, with such persons as may be in most direct communication with the teachers in question.

ART. 20. All further and particular conditions which shall be deemed necessary for the advantage of primary instruction in each province, shall be contained in a local code of regulations, which shall be drawn up by each provincial board, in conformity with Article 5, and shall be submitted to the provincial authorities; who, after having obtained the sanction of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall give formal effect to it.

ART. 21. The Grand Pensionary shall decide upon such further regulations or instructions as may be necessary for the uniform and effective introduction of this law, as well as all other regulations which shall have a tendency to make primary instruction in general more perfect.

All proclamations, statutes, ordinances, or regulations, now in existence in this republic, on the subject of primary schools, under whatever denomination they may be, and especially the decree of the 29th of July, 1803, as well as all the regulations and ordinances for schools founded upon them, shall, without any exception, be rescinded and annulled, from the moment that the present law shall be declared to be in operation, by its being promulgated by the Grand Pensionary.

By virtue of Article 21, of the above law, the several regulations and instructions indicated below by the letters A. B. C., are now decreed in like manner as the present law is decreed.

REGULATION A.

Concerning primary instruction, and the establishments connected with it, in the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. By a primary school, is to be understood, every establishment, of whatsoever denomination, whether schools, colleges, institutions or otherwise, in which the young of different ages and of both sexes shall be educated, whether collectively, or separately, in the first principles of knowledge; such as reading, writing, arithmetic, and the Dutch language; or in more advanced branches of knowledge, such as the French, and other modern languages; or the ancient tongues; geography, history, and other subjects of that description; finally, any establishment having for its object to prepare young persons for a higher education; the ordinary Latin schools and gymnasia, excepted.

ART. 2. Primary schools are hereby divided into two classes:—1. Those which are directly supported, either wholly, or in part, by an annual allowance from any particular fund, whether of the State, province, or parish; from ecclesiastical funds or those belonging to any foundation; or which, in any way, receive permanent assistance or support from any public fund. 2. Those receiving no assistance from any public fund, which are supported by private means or by donations. The first are to be deemed public schools, the second private schools; and the teachers are consequently to be classed as public teachers and private teachers.

ART. 3. The private schools mentioned in the preceding article are of two kinds:—1. Those which belong exclusively, either to a deaconry, to a hospital *Godehuis*, of any religious community, or to the society "FOR THE PUBLIC GOOD;" or to any foundation whatever, supported entirely at its own expense; or to such as are wholly maintained at the expense and at the risk of one, or of several individuals, who have formed an association for the entire and regular support of these schools: 2. Those which have no other income than what they derive from the fees of the pupils, receiving no permanent grant or annual allowance.

ART. 4. Primary instruction, in the Batavian Republic, shall be given in the public and private schools mentioned in Articles 2 and 3, of the present regulations;

In part, by teachers of both sexes, including such other individuals as may act as assistants to, or substitutes for, the master or mistress, or who under the name of under-master, or under-mistress, or the like, are intrusted with some branch of tuition in these schools;

In part, by such teachers of both sexes as under the title of teacher of languages, revisor, (*répétiteur*;) or any other, give lessons either in their own houses or abroad; and who are engaged in teaching some separate branch in the lower departments of tuition, to one or more pupils, in conformity with Article 1, of this regulation.

All such individuals are comprehended in the general law, and shall be designated by the names schoolmaster, schoolmistress, and teacher of languages, the latter term applying to those who give instruction in private houses.

Governors or tutors, and governesses, are alone excepted.

ART. 5. Every school inspector shall have his own particular district, the inspection whereof shall be confided to him individually, and in which he must, if possible, reside. The particular functions of the inspectors are regulated by special instructions for the boards of education. (*Regulation C.*)

ART. 6. The boards of education shall be provided by the provincial authorities, with every thing necessary for holding their meetings, such as a suitable room, fire, light, paper, &c.

ART. 7. If the Secretary of State for the Home Department shall deem it necessary, he shall summon an annual general meeting of deputies from all the provincial boards, to be held at The Hague; he shall preside at that meeting, and they shall deliberate upon the general interests of the primary schools.

ART. 8. Each provincial board shall send one of its members as a deputy to attend that meeting, and his expenses shall be defrayed according to a scale hereafter to be determined upon.

ART. 9. In small towns, villages, hamlets, or other places, where, in addition to a public school, there are not two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of small schools kept by women, the school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes, in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

ART. 10. In all the more considerable towns and places where, independently of one or two public schools, there are two or more private schools of the second class, exclusive of the above-mentioned schools kept by women, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board, and their functions shall be determined by the local regulations regarding schools, which shall be issued in conformity with the general regulations, and with the conditions previously contained in the regulations respecting examinations, or in the instructions for the boards.

ART. 11. In the towns or more considerable places described above, the inspection of the public schools, in so far as it may at present be in the hands of a committee of directors, inspectors, or other persons of the like nature, and which is not at present, and can not be brought directly under the local committee of superintendence, shall be intrusted to the local board, or to two or more of the members thereof conjointly with an equal number of the members of the above mentioned committee. That united body shall constitute the local board for the public schools; and shall have power, under the direction and with the approbation of the parochial authorities, to settle its by-laws and mode of operation, according to circumstances, but in such a way, nevertheless, that the supervision of the instruction in these schools, and every thing connected with them, be wholly under their control.

ART. 12. The formation of these general local school boards, and the organization of the special local boards for the public schools, must take place before

the expiration of two months from the promulgation of this regulation. The parochial authorities must make a report to the provincial authorities, as well as to the provincial board of education.

The school inspector of the district shall discharge the duties of that local school inspection, until the boards shall have been established.

ART. 13. The superintendence of the private schools of the first class, shall belong to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, unless a system of inspection for that purpose be otherwise provided. It will nevertheless be the duty of the inspector of the district, or of the local board, to be informed as to the state and organization of those schools, in order that a report thereon be made annually to the proper authorities. The inspector, or the local board above-mentioned, shall be bound to furnish to the actual inspecting authorities over these private schools, all such information and observations as may contribute to the advantage of these schools. The before-mentioned inspecting authorities shall be responsible for carrying into effect all the regulations, both general and special, which have now been, or shall hereafter be issued, respecting primary instruction.

ART. 14. All masters engaged in primary instruction, and comprehended in the above Article 4, shall make themselves known, either personally or by writing, in the course of the month of July in the present year, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board. Such as shall then exhibit a preëxisting deed of call or nomination, shall, in title thereof, receive a certificate of general admission; and all such as may not be in possession of a deed of that description, but who in the opinion of the inspector, or of the board shall be considered deserving of the above-mentioned certificate, and shall have the approbation of the competent authorities, shall in like manner receive one. All those who shall have in this way obtained the certificate of general admission, shall be comprehended among the teachers, actually exercising a legal function, referred to in Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 15. In cases of extreme ignorance, after an admonition and previous notice by the inspector or local school board, six months at least shall be allowed; and at the expiration of that time, such masters shall be bound to exhibit to the provincial board of education, or to the local board, proofs of a commencement of improvement, in default of which they shall be either suspended or be deprived of their office, in conformity with Art. 18 and 19, of the law.

ART. 16. The enactments of Art. 13, of the law shall however not affect those persons who, having obtained from the competent authority a right to teach publicly, and to prepare young people in the higher branches of education, may be disposed to unite thereto some parts of primary instruction, whether the young persons be boarded with them or not; provided that in the case of boarders, whatever may be the number of the pupils, and in the other case, if the number shall exceed four, they give notice in writing to the provincial board, or to the local school board; it being also understood, that in teaching their pupils, they must not employ other persons than those who possess the qualifications required by Art. 13, of the law.

ART. 17. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

ART. 18. In the event of a vacancy occurring in the situation of a teacher, those who have a right to become candidates shall give notice thereof, in writing, to the school inspector of the district, or to the local school board, adding the amount of the emoluments attached to the situation, in order that due notice may be given thereof.

ART. 19. In every nomination or special appointment, those who give it must deliver to the person nominated, whether public or private schoolmaster or schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, a written deed, setting forth exactly the several duties comprised therein; and these last, in all that relates to tuition, must in no case go beyond those for which the person nominated shall have been authorized by his deed of general admission. The said deed shall not confer any qualification beyond that which is granted by the nomination. These deeds, according to No. 4, Art. 13, of the law, must be exhibited to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, before the person nominated can enter upon any duties; in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 20. Besides a call, nomination, or special appointment as teacher of languages, there must be one as schoolmaster; farther, each deed shall be valid only for the school or place for which it has been granted.

All parochial authorities shall have a right to confer a special appointment on schoolmasters, or on teachers of languages, to entitle them to give lessons in private houses within their jurisdiction; provided such schoolmasters or teachers of languages have been admitted in their province or district, with due observance of what is enacted by Art. 17, of the law; and at the conclusion of the preceding article in this regulation.

ART. 21. *A general regulation for the internal order of schools*, to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, shall be introduced into, and observed, in every school. There shall also be a special code of regulations for each school, drawn up in conformity with the general regulations. That special code shall be modified according to the wants and particular circumstances of each school, and shall be drawn up by the respective local inspecting authorities. It shall be sanctioned, in case of need, and according to circumstances, either by the local authorities, or by the provincial authorities. All these regulations shall be sent to the provincial board of primary instruction, by whom they shall be submitted to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 22. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

ART. 23. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong, but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

ART. 24. At the expiration of a given time, public schoolmasters and schoolmistresses shall not be allowed to make use of any other elementary books than those which shall be contained in the list to be drawn up and issued by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

From that general list, every provincial board shall be at liberty to make out a special list of books for the use of the schools in their province, to the exclusion of all other books, with the understanding, however, that private teachers

of the first class shall have a right to use such other books as their schools may require, with the approbation of the inspecting authorities appointed for their schools, and upon giving notice thereof to the school inspector or to the local board, where such exists. The private teachers of the second class shall have the liberty of proposing to the school inspector of the district, or to the local board, if there be one, such books as they may deem proper for any particular branch that is taught in their schools.

A report shall be made to the first meeting of the provincial board, of all that has taken place on this head, both as regards the private schools of the first and of the second class; which report shall be made by the school inspector of the district, and shall be submitted by the said board to the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

ART. 25. All persons who, by negligence, or by evil intent, shall fail to comply with the conditions of the preceding Articles, shall be subject to the punishments provided in the 18th Article of the law.

ART. 26. Notwithstanding the provisions relative to the suspension or annulment of the deeds of general admission, all persons and committees who have power over the private schools of the first class, shall retain the right to deprive the teachers of those schools of their call or nomination, either temporarily or absolutely, according as they shall deem it necessary for the interest of the school. Such persons or committees shall inform the inspector of the district, or the local board, of the fact, and of their reasons, in order that due public notice may be given thereof.

ART. 27. As concerns masters of public schools, masters of private schools of the second class, schoolmistresses and teachers of languages, the suspension or annulment of their deed of call, nomination, or special appointment, shall carry along with it the annulment or suspension of their deed of general admission; and due public notice thereof shall also be given.

ART. 28. In no private schools of the first class shall it be allowed that any other children be admitted to them, or be instructed therein, than those whose parents belong to the deaconry, hospital, society, or foundation to which these schools are attached, or are comprehended in the number of their inspectors or subscribers.

ART. 29. In the schools established for the poor, the children of the poor only can be admitted and taught.

In places where no such schools are established, the competent authorities shall take care that these children be received and educated in the ordinary school, either at the expense of the deaconry to which they belong, or out of some other fund.

ART. 30. The provincial and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

1st. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes,) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2d. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year.

The school inspector of the district shall make a report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department of all the measures that have been taken, or are

to be taken, for this end, and also of the effects that have followed therefrom, in order that such use may be made of them as the general welfare of the schools shall appear to require.

ART. 31. The Secretary of State for the Home Department shall employ all suitable means for training proper persons as teachers in primary schools, for exciting emulation among distinguished teachers, and for securing their maintenance and ameliorating their condition. He shall also adopt such measures as shall tend to spread a well regulated and truly useful education among the Batavian youth. He, as well as the provincial authorities, shall employ all their disposable means, to promote in the most effective manner, the perfecting of primary instruction; as well as to carry into execution, and maintain in full vigor, the law and all the regulations that belong to the subject.

ART. 32. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, to restrict, and to extend the present regulation in such manner, and at such time, as he shall judge useful and necessary.

REGULATION B.

Concerning the examinations to be undergone by those who desire to become teachers in the primary schools of the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

The fourth or lowest class shall comprehend all such schoolmasters as are tolerably skilled in reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic, including the rule of three, and who show some aptitude in teaching.

The third class shall be composed of those who read and write well, and are skillful in arithmetic, including fractions; and who can use these last in practical questions with facility. They must, besides, have some acquaintance with the principles of the Dutch language, and have acquired some correct ideas as to a good system of teaching.

The second class shall be assigned to all such schoolmasters as can read and recite well; who can write a good and neat hand; who are familiar with theoretical and practical arithmetic; who have advanced pretty far in a knowledge of the principles of the Dutch language; who have some acquaintance with geography and history; and who are capable of imparting a somewhat advanced degree of instruction.

The first or highest class shall consist of those who, besides being very skillful in all the different parts of primary instruction, shall possess, in an eminent degree, an acquaintance with the principles and practice of a judicious and enlightened method of teaching; to whom geography and history are familiar; who have made some progress in mathematics and mechanical philosophy; and who are distinguished by the general cultivation of their minds.

Schoolmistresses, although connected with establishments of different descriptions, shall collectively constitute one class only; and the same rule shall apply to teachers of languages.

ART. 2. Those who only desire to obtain a deed of general admission to qualify themselves as teachers of the fourth or lowest class, shall be required to undergo an examination before the school inspector of the district only, who shall make a report thereof to the board of education, in order that the latter

may declare the admission, and issue the certificate thereof, if it shall have taken place.

ART. 3. All those who are desirous of obtaining a general admission as a master of the third, second, or first class, must be examined by a provincial board of education.

ART. 4. Besides the examinations which masters must pass, in order to obtain a call, nomination, or special appointment, as hereafter provided, the local school boards shall have the right to examine all persons desirous of obtaining a general admission as a teacher of languages, or as a schoolmistress. Where there is no local school board, these examinations shall take place before the school inspector of the district, or by the provincial board, particularly in the case of the candidate proposing to teach foreign languages, or the higher branches of knowledge.

ART. 5. The provincial boards of education, the school inspectors, or the local boards shall not admit to examination for a general admission, any individuals who shall not have been domiciled, for a year preceding, in their province, district, town, or other place within their jurisdiction, except in the case of foreigners who may wish to settle there.

ART. 6. Every person desirous of passing an examination for the office of schoolmaster, schoolmistress, or teacher of languages, must appear in due time before the member of the provincial board, or before the member of the local board in whose district or section he or she resides.

If he be a foreigner, he must equally apply to the said member of the district or section in which he wishes to settle; and both the one and the other must produce, at the same time, one or more satisfactory certificates of good moral conduct and of good conduct as citizens.

The above named member shall then notify the time and place where the examination shall be held.

ART. 7. In these examinations, the object shall be, to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

ART. 8. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion, the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

ART. 9. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:—

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation, and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain the extent of his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and to translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *visé voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improvise*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c.; all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar, and punctuation.

ART. 10. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic.

They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

ART. 11. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but, most especially, to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

ART. 12. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talent and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

ART. 13. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission, either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages

That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

ART. 14. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

ART. 15. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

ART. 16. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth, or lowest class, shall confer no privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

ART. 17. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9, of Regulation A., shall be classed by the different inspectors, and by the provincial boards, into *higher*, *middle*, and *lower* schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal schools falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

ART. 18. In the towns, or places of greater importance, described more fully in Art. 10, of Regulation A., no master of the fourth, or lowest class, shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be intrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class*.

ART. 19. The deed to be delivered to the masters of the first class, shall bear the title, *par excellence*, of COMPLETE CERTIFICATE. It shall not be granted to any one who has not attained the age of twenty-five;* the greatest strictness must be observed in granting this certificate, which shall be distinguished from all the others, in form as well as in the terms in which it is drawn up.

ART. 20. The value of the *Complete Certificate*, delivered in terms of the preceding conditions, shall be settled for each province by the local regulation; with this proviso, that the possessors of such certificates shall be entitled to examination gratis, when they are desirous of undergoing one, in order to avail themselves of the privileges belonging to them.†

ART. 21. The deeds of general admission, qualifying for the situation of

* The age at which each of the three other ranks may be obtained were subsequently fixed as follows: the second class at twenty-two years of age, the third class at eighteen, and the fourth class at sixteen.

† This temporary article has been long since abolished.

schoolmistress or teacher of languages, shall only be valid within the limits of the jurisdiction of those by whom they have been issued.

ART. 22. A deed of general admission as teacher, of whatever rank, shall confer the privilege upon the holder, of becoming a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment, either as a master, or a teacher of languages. But a general admission as teacher of languages, on the contrary, shall give no right to the holder to become a candidate for a call, nomination, or special appointment as a master, unless a general admission as master shall also have been obtained.

ART. 23. Masters of the three lower classes shall be at liberty to apply at any time to the board of education of the province in which they reside to be admitted into a higher class, by undergoing a fresh examination; and the most distinguished individuals in the two lower classes, shall be invited and encouraged by the school inspector of the district, or by the local school board, to come forward at the expiration of every two years to be again examined before the provincial board, until they shall have obtained a certificate as master of the second class; and on each occasion a new certificate shall be delivered to them, according to the higher rank to which they shall have been raised.

ART. 24. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published through the medium of the periodical work, intitled "*Bydragen tot den Staat*," &c.* The mistresses of schools for very young children shall not be included in this list.

ART. 25. Those who shall have obtained a general admission as master, of whatsoever rank or kind it may be, must undergo a second examination or comparative trial, when they are candidates for a call, nomination, or special appointment, and that comparative trial shall take place, either before the local school board, or before some other board or persons duly authorized for the purpose by those who have authority to appoint them.

ART. 26. The provincial and municipal authorities shall fix the payments to be made for the examinations; but in such a manner,—

1. That there shall be an increase in the rate payable for each new class, and that a due proportion shall be observed in the fees to be exacted from the different ranks of schoolmasters, schoolmistresses, and teachers of languages.

2. That if a person shall have paid the fee for the lower class of schoolmaster, when he obtains a higher rank, he shall not pay more in addition, than the difference between the fee for the lower class, and that for the higher class into which he has been admitted.

3. That if a teacher of languages shall obtain any rank as a master, he shall be considered as having thus far paid nothing toward the fee.

4. That those who, according to the preceding laws for the regulation of schools, shall have passed an examination for which they have paid the fee, and shall undergo a new examination in order to obtain rank, of whatever degree, shall not pay more than the difference between the amount payable for the higher rank and their former payment. All those who shall have obtained a complete certificate, are exempted from this provision.

5. That the fees paid for examinations which have taken place before the

* This useful compilation continues to the present day.

school inspector of the district shall be paid over to the fund for the respective boards of education.

ART. 27. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, or extend the present regulation, as it shall appear to him to be useful and necessary.

REGULATION C.

Instruction for the School Inspectors, and for the boards of education in the different provinces of the Batavian Republic.

ARTICLE 1. The school inspectors shall take the utmost care that the education of the young be conducted upon a uniform system, improved, and rendered more directly and more generally useful; that the masters be really capable of imparting instruction of that nature; that their zeal be encouraged, their merit rewarded, and their condition improved; that the measures taken, or to be taken, relative to primary education be duly notified and carried into execution; that all obstacles which may present themselves be removed with prudence, in order that the improvement of primary instruction in general, may be brought before the public in an advantageous light; all in conformity with the following provisions.

ART. 2. Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

ART. 3. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof. He shall be at all times accessible to those who think they require advice and explanations from him, concerning their duties: in particular cases he may require them to appear before him in person, or to address him in writing, when he shall deem it necessary.

ART. 4. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible. On these occasions, he shall converse with them on the object and nature of the important duties confided to them, and upon the best method of fulfilling them faithfully and usefully for the children.*

ART. 5. The inspector shall be bound to visit twice a year, all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good, and as often as he can do so without imposing too heavy a duty upon himself. He shall inspect the other schools in his district from time to time; but if these schools are under any particular superintend-

* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, at different times, in the districts of each province, which keeps up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

ence, he shall not visit them without having had due communication with the persons who are so charged with them.

ART. 6. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed; and, according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen and heard. Every school inspector shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

ART. 7. In his visits to the other schools, the inspector shall not communicate to the master the remarks and reflections he may have had occasion to note down, but shall with due discretion communicate them either to the local board or to the particular parties intrusted with their superintendence, according to the nature of the school.

ART. 8. In all matters relating to the welfare of the schools, in which the inspectors may stand in need of the assistance or coöperation of the civil power, they shall apply to the local authorities, either provincial or national, according to the nature of the business.

ART. 9. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year. They shall for that purpose make the necessary representations to the constituted authorities, or to the persons who have power to take the necessary measures for that end; conforming, moreover, in all the provisions contained in the present and the preceding Article, to what has been declared in Art. 5, of the law.

ART. 10. They shall take care that before any master enters upon his office, he be provided with the required license of appointment, and they shall require him to produce at the same time the documents which were necessary for obtaining the special nomination. As regards the annual renewal of the patent, the persons appointed by the law for that purpose shall look after it.*

ART. 11. Although every school inspector be authorized in the cases, and in the manner provided by Art. 9, of Regulation A., to depute the local inspection of one or more schools to one or more persons, he shall nevertheless be held fully responsible for those schools and for the education which is given in them. He shall be bound to fulfill in person the essential duties of his office as regards those schools. The appointment of the local inspectors is merely to aid and relieve him in the discharge of his duties.

ART. 12. Being a member of every local school board established in his dis-

* Long since become obsolete.

trict, the inspector must receive notice of all their meetings, and he must attend them as often as possible, and especially on those occasions when candidates are to be examined.

He shall have access to all the schools subject to the inspection of the local boards, but he shall not be entitled to preside at those meetings in virtue of his office, nor shall he, conjointly with the other members, take part in the inspection of any section or number of schools in the place, which are confided to the personal inspection of an individual of the board.

The other members of the local boards shall possess the same powers of inspection over the primary schools in the place, each in his particular section, in the same manner as the duties of inspection are intrusted individually to the school inspectors in those situations where no local boards exist; so that every thing contained in the first nine articles of the present regulation concerning school inspectors shall apply to the members of the local boards, subject only to the alterations that the different circumstances require.

ART. 13. The inspector shall endeavor, by all suitable means, and particularly by friendly communications with the local inspectors, and with the different members of the local school boards established in his district, to have the earliest and most correct information of all changes, and of all events of importance respecting the primary schools, which may occur in any part of his district; or of any thing relating to vacancies in the office of teacher, either by death, resignation, or other cause. He shall inform himself as to the nature of the schools; of the class to which they belong; of the emoluments; of the conditions attached to the situations; as also the names, qualifications, rank and talents of the persons who shall have received a call, nomination, or special appointment to fill the vacancies throughout his district.

ART. 14. The inspector shall send monthly to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, an accurate report of all vacancies in the office of teacher, and of all new appointments, (except what concerns the schools for children of tender age,) and of every detail mentioned in the preceding article, in order that such reports may be published, in so far as it shall be thought advisable, in the periodical work entitled "*Bydragen*," &c.

ART. 15. The inspectors shall take care, in the event of a vacancy in the office of inspector in any district, whether by resignation, death, or other cause, that all the papers and documents relating to it be delivered in good order to the person who shall succeed.

ART. 16. When any such vacancy shall occur, whether by death, resignation, or other cause, the inspection of the district shall be carried on until a successor is appointed, by one or more of the inspectors belonging to that provincial board, according to a temporary arrangement to be made by the said board on each vacancy, and approved of by the Secretary of State for the Home Department.

The parties discharging the duties of a vacant inspectorship shall be entitled to all the emoluments belonging to the office.

ART. 17. The recommendations for filling up vacancies among the school inspectors of a district shall in future be made by the respective boards of education, at their first meeting after the vacancy shall have occurred, and shall be transmitted to the provincial authorities; and if any circumstances shall prevent this being done, these shall be communicated to the said authorities during the session of the board.

ART. 18. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October. The particular days and hours shall be fixed by the boards themselves, who shall advertise them in the *Hydragen*.

ART. 19. Extraordinary meetings shall be held:

1. When required for one or more examinations. They shall be regulated as provided in the code of local regulations;

2. When specially ordered, either by the Secretary of State for the Home Department, or by the provincial authorities; and, in that case, the party calling the meeting shall defray all expenses, at a reasonable rate;

3. When the members consider it necessary or advisable to hold an extraordinary meeting; but it shall then be at their own expense.

ART. 20. All the members of the board shall be bound to be present at these meetings, and can only be excused by a case of urgent necessity.

ART. 21. The offices of president and secretary of the board shall be filled by all the members in rotation, but the length of service of any individual may be prolonged provided it be with his consent.

ART. 22. If the board shall be desirous of appointing to the office of secretary a person who is not a member of the board, the proposal shall be submitted to the provincial authorities, and the appointment shall be made by the Grand Pensionary. Nevertheless, such appointment shall not carry along with it any increase of the grant assigned to each board.

ART. 23. These meetings, both ordinary and extraordinary, shall not be dissolved, until all the business to be transacted, shall have been duly attended to.

ART. 24. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes, by virtue of Art. 2, of Regulation B.; the whole accompanied by such particulars as shall be deemed of importance.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting; and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school-books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met

with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication *Bydragen*.

ART. 25. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

That general report, together with the ordinary written reports of the past month, shall be presented to the meeting which is held after Easter.

ART. 26. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention in their annual report any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school-inspectors, before the end of February, at latest.

This report shall also contain every particular relating to the schools; it shall be presented to a meeting of the local board, and shall be transmitted afterward to the inspector of the district, to be used by him for the before-mentioned purpose.

ART. 27. From these annual reports of the different members of the respective provincial boards, each of them shall draw up a brief and general summary of the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his province; and two copies shall be made thereof.

ART. 28. At the end of the ordinary meeting the provincial boards shall forward, or cause to be forwarded, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, within fifteen days:—

1. An authentic extract from the minutes or proceedings of that meeting, and of any extraordinary meetings that may have been held;

2. The original written reports delivered in by each member;

3. A list of the persons who shall have been examined during the sitting of the board, ordinary and extraordinary, stating the results of the examinations, and particularly the ranks which the different persons shall have obtained, in order that publication may be made of all that shall be considered necessary to be made public in the periodical work intitled *Bydragen*.

ART. 29. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,—

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the considera-

tion of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities.

ART. 30. A similar authentic copy of the annual general summary shall be forwarded by the board, within the same period to the provincial authorities. All the other documents shall in like manner be laid before the provincial authorities, if required, or the member of the provincial government specially intrusted with the care of the primary schools and of primary instruction. For that purpose, all the original documents forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, namely, the different written reports of the several inspectors, their annual reports, and the annual reports of the different local boards, shall be returned to the member who officiated as secretary at the last meeting, after the purpose for which they are sent to the Secretary of State shall have been served; and within the period of two months at the latest, after their receipt: and these documents shall be afterward deposited among the papers of the respective boards.

ART. 31. The Grand Pensionary reserves to himself the right to interpret, restrict, and extend the present regulation in such manner as he shall deem advisable.

In conformity with Article 21, of the law, which is placed at the head of the present decree, the Grand Pensionary shall give public notice of the period when all former statutes, ordinances, laws, and regulations, touching the government of schools, shall be repealed and made of non-effect; and more particularly the decree of the 29th July, 1803, as well as all regulations, general and particular, which were founded upon it.

In conformity therewith, we ordain and enjoin, that the present law shall be published and fixed up in all places which it concerns, and order that all whom it concerns do see that it be fully carried into execution.

Given at The Hague, the 3d of April, 1806.

(Signed)

R. J. SCHIMMELPENNINGK,

Grand Pensionary.

And, by order, The General Secretary of State,

(Signed)

C. G. HULTMAN.

The superiority of public elementary instruction in Holland, is attributed, by her own educators, and by intelligent foreigners, who have visited her schools in the rural districts, as well as in the large towns, to that system of special inspection, combined with specific and enforced preparation of all candidates for the office of teacher, and subsequent gradation of rank and pay, according to character and skill, which has now been in operation nearly half a century, ever since the first school law of the Batavian Republic, in 1806, drawn up by that wise statesman, M. Van der Palm. The following extracts will give at once this testimony, and an intelligent account of the system of inspection.

Baron Cuvier, in his "*Report to the French Government on the establishment of Public Instruction in Holland*," in 1811, after speaking with special commendation of the system of inspection, remarks :

"The government is authorized to grant to each province a certain sum to meet the compensation, and the expenses of travel, and meeting of the inspectors. The mode of choosing them is excellent; they are taken from clergymen, or laymen of education, who have signalized themselves by their interest in the education of children, and skill in the local management of schools; from the teachers who have distinguished themselves in their vocation; and in the large towns, from the professors of the Universities and higher grade of schools."

Mr. W. E. Hickson, now Principal of the Mechanics Institute in Liverpool, in an "*Account of the Dutch and German Schools*," published in 1840, remarks :

"In Holland, education is, on the whole, more faithfully carried out than in most of the German States, and we may add that, notwithstanding the numerous Normal Schools of Prussia, (institutions in which Holland, although possessing two, is still deficient,) the Dutch schoolmasters are decidedly superior to the Prussian, and the schools of primary instruction consequently in a more efficient state. This superiority we attribute entirely to a better system of inspection. In Prussia, the inspectors of schools are neither sufficiently numerous, nor are their powers sufficiently extensive. Mr. Streiz, the inspector for the province of Posen, confessed to us the impossibility of personally visiting every one of the 1,635 schools in his district, and admitted that he was obliged, in his returns, to depend to a great extent upon the reports of local school committees. In Holland, inspection is the basis upon which the whole fabric of popular instruction rests.

The constitution of the Board is well worthy of attention; there can be no judges of the qualifications of teachers equal to those whose daily employment consists in visiting schools, and comparing the merits of different plans of instruction. But the power given to the inspector does not end here: by virtue of his office he is a member of every local board, and when vacant situations in schools are to be filled up, a new examination is instituted before him into the merits of the different candidates. It is upon his motion that the appointment is made, and upon his report to the higher authorities a master is suspended or dismissed for misconduct. Through his influence children of more than ordinary capacity in the schools he visits, are transferred, as pupils, to the Normal Schools, in order to be trained for masters; and through his active agency all improved plans or methods of instruction are diffused throughout the various institutions of the country."

M. Couain, in a Report to the minister of Public Instruction in France, in 1836, "*on the state of Education in Holland*," while giving a preference to the school law of Prussia, in its provision for Normal Schools, and the classification of public schools, and especially for the support of the higher class of primary schools, assigns the palm to Holland, in the matter of school inspection.

"The provincial boards of primary instruction, with their great and various powers, constitute, in my mind, the chief superiority of the Dutch over the Prussian law. They resemble the *Schul-collegium*, which forms a part of every provincial consistory in Prussia; but they are far better, for the *Schul-collegium* is not composed of inspectors. It sends out some of its members to inspect, as occasion requires, but inspection is not its function. It judges from written documents, and not from ocular proof, and is generally obliged to rely upon the sole testimony of the member sent to inspect; whereas in Holland, the board, being both inspectors and judges of inspections, are on the one hand better judges, in consequence of the experience they have acquired in a constant routine of inspection; and, on the other hand, they are better inspectors, by what they learn at the board, when acting as judges and governors, a combination eminently practical, and uniting what is almost every where separated.

Every inspector resides in his own district, and he is bound to inspect every school at least twice a year, and he has jurisdiction over the primary schools of every grade within the district. Without his approval no one can either be a public or a private teacher; and no public or private teacher can retain his situation, or be promoted, or receive any gratuity; for no commissioner has any power in his absence, and he is either the chairman or the influential member of all meetings that are held. He is thus at the head of the whole of the primary instruction in his particular district. He is required to repair three times a year to the chief town of the province, to meet the other district inspectors of the province, and a conference is held, the governor of the province presiding, which lasts for a fortnight or three weeks, during which time each inspector reads a report upon the state of his district, and brings before the meeting all such questions as belong to them. As each province has its own particular code of regulations for its primary schools, founded upon the law and its general regulations, the provincial board examines whether all the proceedings of the several inspectors have been conformable to that particular code; they look to the strict and uniform execution of the code; they pass such measures as belong to them to originate, and they draw up the annual report which is to be presented to the central administration, and submit such amendments as appear to them necessary or useful, and of which the central administration is constituted the judge. Under the Minister of the Interior there is a high functionary, the Inspector-general of Primary Instruction; and from time to time a general meeting is summoned by the government, to be held at the Hague, to which each provincial board sends a deputy; and thus, from the Inspector-general of the Hague, down to the local inspector of the smallest district, the whole of the primary instruction is under the direction of inspectors. Each inspector has charge of his own district, each provincial board has charge of its province; and the general meeting, which may be called the assembly of the states-general of primary instruction, has charge of the whole kingdom. All these authorities are, in their several degrees, analogous in their nature; for all are public functionaries, all are paid and responsible officers. The district-inspector is responsible to the provincial Board of Commissioners; and they are responsible to the Inspector-general and the Minister of the Interior. In this learned and very simple hierarchy the powers of every member are clearly defined and limited."

Mr. George Nicholls, in a "*Report on the condition of the Laboring Poor in Holland and Belgium*," to the Poor Law Commissioners of England, in 1838, remarks:

"The measures adopted in Holland to promote the education of all classes,

have apparently resulted from the conviction that the moral and social character of the people, their intelligence, and their capacity for increasing the resources of the country, must in a great measure depend upon the manner in which they are trained for the fulfillment of their several duties. The state has not rendered education actually obligatory upon the municipalities, neither has it required evidence of the education of the children of the poorer classes by any educational test; for a sense of the importance of education pervades the entire community—it is sought by the poor for their children, with an earnestness similar to that observed in the more wealthy classes in other countries; and in Holland, the direct interference of government is confined to regulating the mode of instruction, by means of an organized system of inspection.

This system, however much it may interfere with the liberty of the subject, has certainly some advantages. The poor, who have no means of judging for themselves, have, in the certificate given to every schoolmaster, some sort of guarantee that the person to whom they send their children is not an ignorant charlatan, professing to teach what he has never learned, and in the next place it secures to those who devote themselves to the profession a much higher rate of remuneration than they would receive if, as with us, every broken-down tradesman could open a school when able to do nothing else. This exclusion of absolute incapacity is also a means, and a very powerful one, of raising the character of the profession in popular estimation. With us, any man can become a schoolmaster, as easily as he can a coal-merchant, by simply putting a brass plate on his door; but in Holland, (and the same system is very general in Germany,) some degree of study is rendered indispensable, and the whole class, therefore, stand out from the rest of the community as men of superior attainments, and enjoy that consideration which men of cultivated minds everywhere command, when not surrounded by coadjutors below rather than above the common level.

In Holland, there is no profession that ranks higher than that of a schoolmaster, and a nobleman would scarcely, if at all, command more respect than is paid to many of those who devote their lives to the instruction of youth. The same personal consideration is extended to the assistant teacher or usher. We were much struck with the difference in the position of persons of this class abroad, from their lot at home, when we were visiting a school for the middle classes at Hesse-Cassel. The school contained 300 children, and was supported partly by the town and the government, and partly by the payments of the scholars. The charge for daily instruction was from 1s. 8d. to 5s. per month. The children were distributed in six classes—to each class a separate master or assistant teacher. We were conducted over the establishment by the head master or director of the school, and the first thing which drew our attention was the extreme ceremony with which we were introduced to each of the assistant masters, and the many apologies made by the professor for interrupting them, although but for a moment, in their important labors. We saw those treated as equals, who are in England often estimated as only on a rank with grooms or upper servants.

The most important branch of administration, as connected with education, is that which relates to school inspection. All who have ever been anxious either to maintain the efficiency of a school, or to improve its character, will appreciate the importance of the frequent periodical visits of persons having a knowledge of what education is, and who are therefore able to estimate correctly the amount and kind of instruction given. Let a school established by voluntary subscriptions be placed to-day upon the best possible footing, if no vigilance be exercised by its founders, and if the master be neither encouraged nor stimulated to exertion by their presence, his salary will speedily be converted into a sinecure, and the school will degenerate to the lowest point of utility."

Professor Bache, in his "*Report on Education in Europe*," in 1838, to the Trustees of Girard College, remarks:

"The system of primary instruction in Holland is particularly interesting to an American, from its organization in an ascending series; beginning with the local school authorities, and terminating, after progressive degrees of representation, as it were, in the highest authority; instead of emanating, as in the centralized systems, from that authority. A fair trial has been given to a system

of inspection which is almost entirely applicable to our country, and which has succeeded with them."

The school system of Holland consists of a brief law, of only twenty-three articles, drawn up by M. Van der Palm, the distinguished Oriental scholar, in 1801, and modified by M. Van der Ende, in 1806, and a series of Regulations drawn up by the state department having charge of this subject, to carry out the provisions of the law. The law was so wisely framed, and was so well adapted to the spirit, customs and habits of the people, that it has survived three great revolutions: first, that which converted the Batavian Republic into a kingdom, at first independent, but afterward incorporated with the French empire; next, that which dethroned Louis, restored the house of Orange, and united Holland and Belgium in one monarchy; and lastly, the revolution which again separated the two countries, and restricted the kingdom of the Netherlands to its former limits. During these thirty years, the law of 1806 was never interfered with; it could only be altered by another law, and when the government, in 1829, in order to please the Belgian liberal party, brought forward a new general law, which made some very objectionable changes in that of 1806, the chambers resisted, and the government were obliged to withdraw the bill.

The following provisions will show the spirit and scope of the law, and general regulations.

IX. "The school inspector of the district is authorized, in concert with the local authorities, to intrust one or more known and respectable persons with a local inspection, subordinate to his own, over the school or schools, and also over all the teachers of both sexes in the place, whether village, hamlet, or otherwise, and for each separately.

X. In all the more considerable towns and places, the parochial authorities, in concert with the school inspector of the district, shall establish a local superintendence of the primary schools, which shall consist of one or more persons, according to local circumstances, but so as each member shall have a particular division, and all the schools in that division shall be confided to him individually. These persons shall collectively constitute, with the school inspector of the district, the local school board.

XVII. No one shall be allowed to become a candidate for a vacant school, or to establish a new one, or to give private lessons, without having first obtained a certificate of general admission. In like manner, no one shall be allowed to teach any other branch than that for which he shall have received a certificate of general admission.

XXII. The instruction shall be conducted in such a manner, that the study of suitable and useful branches of knowledge shall be accompanied by an exercise of the intellectual powers, and in such a manner that the pupils shall be prepared for the practice of all social and Christian virtues.

XXIII. Measures shall be taken that the scholars be not left without instruction in the doctrinal creed of the religious community to which they belong; but that part of the instruction shall not be exacted from the schoolmaster.

XXX. The provincial* and parochial authorities are recommended to take the necessary steps:

* The constitution of Holland is somewhat singular, and would seem at first sight to be founded upon what perhaps may one day be recognized as the true theory of representative government, that of progressive, intermediate elections. The rate-payers elect the *Kiezers*, the *Kiezers* elect the *Raad* or town council, the town council elect a certain proportion of the members of the provincial government, and the provincial government elect the lower chamber of the *States General*, or House of Commons.

The *States-General* consist of two chambers. The upper chamber is somewhat of a House of Lords, but not hereditary. The members, fifty in number, receive 250*l.* per annum for travelling ex-

1. That the emoluments of the teacher (principally in rural parishes) be settled in such a way that his duties, when creditably performed, may obtain for him a sufficient livelihood, and that he be rendered as little dependent as possible, by direct aid, upon the parents of the children who frequent his school.

2. That attendance at the schools be strictly enforced, and that they be kept open throughout the year."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE EXAMINATION OF THOSE WHO DESIRE TO BECOME
TEACHERS OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. The teachers shall be divided into four classes, or grades, according to the amount of knowledge required, and according to the examination which they shall have passed.

VII. In these examinations, the object shall be to ascertain not only the extent of knowledge of the candidate in the branches he is proposing to teach, but also his power of communicating that knowledge to others, and especially to children.

VIII. Before proceeding to the examination properly so called, the examiners shall endeavor to ascertain, in conversation with the candidate, his opinions on morals and religion; the sphere of his attainments, both with regard to the most indispensable parts of primary instruction, and to foreign languages and other branches which he proposes to teach; together with his aptitude to direct, instruct, and form the character of youth.

IX. The subjects of examination shall be as follows:

1. Reading from different printed and written characters; and whether with a good pronunciation and a proper and natural accent, and with a knowledge of punctuation.

2. Some words and phrases designedly wrong shall be shown to the candidate, to ascertain his knowledge of orthography.

3. To ascertain his acquaintance with the grammatical structure of the Dutch language, a sentence shall be dictated to him, which he shall analyze, and point out the parts of speech; and he must give proofs of a familiar acquaintance with the declensions and conjugations.

4. The candidate shall write some lines in large, middle, and small hand, and shall make his own pens.

5. Some questions in arithmetic shall be proposed to him, confining this especially to such as are of common occurrence, and which shall be sufficient to show the dexterity of the candidate in calculations, both in whole numbers and in fractions. Questions shall be put to him on the theoretical parts, and especially on decimal arithmetic.

6. Some questions shall be proposed on the theory of singing.

7. Different questions shall be proposed relative to history, geography, natural philosophy, mathematics, and such other branches of knowledge as the candidate proposes to teach.

8. A passage in French, or in any other language in which the candidate wishes to be examined, shall be given to him to read and translate. A passage in Dutch shall be dictated to him, to be translated by him, either in writing or *visu voce*, into the language which forms the subject of the examination. He shall be required to give, *de improviso*, in the same language, a composition in the form of a letter or narrative, &c., all for the purpose of ascertaining the degree of acquaintance he possesses with the language in question, in orthography, grammar and punctuation.

penes. The lower chamber, before the Revolution, consisted of 110 members, now but of fifty-five. The provincial governments are:

North Brabant,	42 members.	Friesland,	34 members.
Gelderland,	30 "	Overysel,	53 "
Holland,	30 "	Groningen,	36 "
Zeland,	46 "	Drenthe,	24 "
Utrecht,	36 "		

The members of these provincial governments are not elected by the town councils, but by the nobility; the town councils, and Kiezers of the country districts, nearly in equal proportions. General business affecting more than one province, is referred to one or other of two committees, or provincial cabinets, elected by the members of the provincial governments. On these committees one member sits for each province.

X. The examination upon the acquirements of the candidate having been completed, the examiners shall proceed to inquire into his capacity for teaching; they shall question him as to the manner of teaching children to know the letters, figures, and the first principles; then reading, writing, and arithmetic. They shall then require him to relate some story or portion of history, in order to discover the degree of talent he possesses to present things to children with clearness and precision; care shall be taken, if there be a convenient opportunity, and if it be thought advisable, to have some children present, of different ages, and of different degrees of attainment, in order to ascertain more particularly his skill in practical teaching.

XI. Finally, the examiners shall propose some questions upon the principles to be followed in rewards and punishments; as also in general on the best methods to be adopted, not only to develop and cultivate the intellectual faculties of children, but most especially to bring them up in the exercise of the Christian virtues.

XII. When the examination is concluded, the examiners shall deliver to the candidate, who desires to obtain a general admission as a master, and has given proof of sufficient ability, a deed of that admission, according to the extent of his ability; and in this shall be stated, as distinctly as possible, the extent and the nature of the talents and of the acquirements of the candidate, as proved by his examination; and it shall declare the rank he has obtained, if it be in the first, second, third, or fourth class, and consequently such a general admission as shall give him a right to apply for the situation of a master, according to the rank which has been assigned to him. Finally, the said deed shall declare the branches of education, and the languages for which he shall have obtained the general admission.

XIII. The schoolmistresses or teachers of languages who shall have passed an examination, and have given sufficient proofs of their ability, shall also receive a deed which shall contain, besides a declaration of the extent and amount of their acquirements and talents, as proved by the examination, a general admission either for the office of schoolmistress or teacher of languages. That deed shall moreover expressly declare the branches of study and the languages which the person examined shall be entitled to teach.

XIV. All the deeds mentioned in the two preceding articles shall be alike throughout the whole extent of the republic, both in the matter and the form. If they are issued by a provincial board of education, they shall be signed by the president and secretary, and the seal of the board shall be affixed to them. The deeds issued by an inspector, or by a local board, shall be signed by the inspector only, or by the secretary of the local board.

XV. The certificates for the first and second class, issued by a provincial board, shall entitle those who obtain them to be masters in all primary schools, public as well as private, of the two classes, in all places throughout the republic, without exception; whereas the deeds issued by a local board shall confer no privilege beyond that locality.

XVI. The certificates for the third class, as well as those for the fourth or lowest class, shall confer the privilege of becoming teachers, except in schools established in places whose wants are proportioned to the rank and capacity of such masters, and which are situated within the jurisdiction of the provincial board.

XVII. In order that the provisions contained in the two preceding articles may be more easily carried into effect, the schools in small towns and less considerable places, more fully described in Art. 9 of regulation A, shall be classed by the different inspectors and by the provincial boards, into higher, middle, and lower schools, upon a principle hereafter provided. This classification, which shall be submitted to the provincial authorities for approval, shall be solely for the purpose of preventing the principal school falling into the hands of incompetent masters; while, at the same time, it leaves the power of placing a very able master over the smallest school.

XVIII. In the towns or places of greatest importance, no master of the fourth or lowest class shall be eligible to either a public or a private school. The local boards are even recommended to take care, as much as possible, that the tuition in the schools of their towns shall not be entrusted to any other than *masters of the first or second class.*

XXIV. A list containing the name, the rank, the nature, and the extent of

the abilities of each of those who shall have obtained deeds of general admission as master, mistress, or teacher of languages, shall be published in the periodical work entitled 'Hydragen tot den Staat,' &c., (which is still published.)"

It is impossible not to see that the stimulating effect of a series of examinations of this character, before a tribunal composed of qualified judges, must produce a class of teachers for the work of primary instruction unequalled in any other part of the world. But the soul of the whole system is *inspection*, or in other words, active and vigilant superintendence,—intelligent direction, and real responsibility,—all of which are involved in the system of inspection carried out in Holland. Without inspection there can be no competent tribunal for the examination of teachers; without inspection, local school committees and conductors of schools would be irresponsible to public opinion, inert and negligent; without inspection there would be no person constantly at hand sufficiently informed upon the state of education to suggest the measures required for the promotion of its objects; without inspection there would be no diffusion of new ideas, no benefiting by the experience of others, no rivalry in improvement, no progress. The following extracts will show the manner in which the duties of inspection are provided for.

REGULATIONS FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS, AND FOR THE BOARDS OF EDUCATION IN THE DIFFERENT PROVINCES.

II. "Each inspector shall make himself acquainted with the number and situations of the primary schools, and also with the state of primary instruction throughout the whole extent of his district. It shall be his duty to see that, besides the necessary number of ordinary schools, there shall be a sufficient number of schools for children of tender age, organized in the best possible manner, and also schools of industry. Finally, he shall take care, that proper instruction in all branches of primary education may be obtained, according to the circumstances and wants of the different parishes.

III. He shall make it his business to become personally acquainted with the different masters in his district, and with the extent of their fitness, and shall keep a note thereof.

IV. He shall make it his special business to excite and maintain the zeal of the masters; and for that purpose, he shall at fixed periods require a certain number of them to meet him, either at his own house or in other parts of his district, and as frequently as possible.*

V. The inspector shall be bound to *visit twice a year* all the schools in his district, which are directly subject to his supervision. He is hereby exhorted to repeat those visits at different times, either when a particular case calls for it, or for the general good.

VI. In visiting the schools which are under his direct supervision, he shall call upon the master to teach the pupils of the different classes in his presence, those which are in different stages of progress, in order that he may judge as to the manner in which the instruction is given and regulated. He shall also inquire if the regulations concerning primary instruction, as well as the regulation for the internal order of the school, are duly observed and executed; and he shall pay attention to every thing which he believes to be of any importance. At the conclusion of the visit, the inspector shall have a private conversation with the master or mistress, upon all he has observed: and according as the case may be, he shall express approbation, give them advice, admonish, or censure them, upon what he may have seen or heard. Every school inspector

* In compliance with the spirit of this article, societies of schoolmasters have been formed, under the auspices of the inspectors, in the districts of each province, which keep up a rivalry of improvement. They meet at stated times, generally every month.

shall keep notes of all remarks and observations which he shall have made in the course of his visits, to be used in the manner hereinafter provided.

IX. They shall pay particular attention to improve the school-rooms; to the education of the children of the poor, and especially in the villages and hamlets; to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; and to the schools being kept open and attended without interruption, as much as possible, during the whole year.

XVIII. The ordinary meetings of the boards shall be held in the towns where the provincial authorities reside, at least three times a year; the one during Easter week, the other two in the second week of July and October.

XXIV. At each ordinary meeting, each member shall give in a written report:—

1. Of the schools he has visited since the last meeting, stating the time of his visit, and the observations he then made regarding the state of the schools, in all the different particulars.

2. Of the meetings he has held of the schoolmasters for the purpose of communicating with them respecting their duties.

3. Of the examinations which have taken place before him of masters of the lowest class, and of the higher classes.

4. Of the changes and other events which shall have taken place in his district, relative to any school or schoolmaster, since the last meeting, and especially all vacancies of masterships, the delivery of deeds of call, nomination, or special appointment of every degree and of every class, setting forth the most important circumstances connected with them: the appointment of local inspectors in places of minor extent; the changes that may have occurred in the local school boards; the inspection of a new primary school or school of industry; the admission of any teacher of languages; the drawing up of any rules for the internal order of schools; the introduction of school books, other than those contained in the general list of books, in the private schools of both classes; the measures that have been taken to regulate and improve the incomes of the masters; the measures that have been taken to secure the schools being uninterruptedly kept open and attended; any difficulties they may have encountered; the encouragement or otherwise which the masters may have met with; and the examinations of pupils in the schools. The inspector shall further point out the particular parts which he wishes to have inserted in the above mentioned monthly publication, (*Bydragen*.)

XXV. From these written documents and other private information, as well as from the written reports of the local school boards, (as mentioned in the following article,) every school inspector shall draw up annually, previous to the meeting held in Easter week, a general report on the state of the schools and of primary instruction throughout his district. He shall state therein the reasons why he has not visited, or has not visited more than once, any particular school in the course of the preceding year. He shall state such proposals as appear to him deserving of attention, and which may tend to the improvement of primary instruction.

XXVI. In order that the school inspectors may not omit to mention, in their annual report, any of the particulars stated in the preceding article, the local school boards, or their individual members, in so far as concerns the schools placed under their individual inspection, shall draw up a report in writing, similar to that required from the school inspectors, before the end of February at latest.

XXIX. At the conclusion of the ordinary meeting held in Easter week, each board shall forward, or cause to be forwarded within the space of four weeks, to the Secretary of State for the Home Department, besides the documents mentioned in the preceding article,

1. One of the two authentic copies of the annual general summary.

2. The originals of the general reports of the different members of the boards.

3. The originals of the annual written reports of the different local boards.

4. A detailed statement, taken from the report of each of the members, of the proposals which each board shall be desirous of bringing under the consideration of the next annual general meeting, or which it has been resolved to lay before the provincial authorities."

REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE GENERAL ORDER TO BE OBSERVED IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

I. "The primary schools shall be open without intermission the whole year, except during the times fixed for the holidays.

II. During the whole time devoted to the lessons, the master shall be present from the beginning to the end; he shall not be engaged in any thing which is unconnected with the teaching, nor absent himself from school, except for reasons of absolute necessity.

III. The master shall take care that the pupils do not unnecessarily go out of school; and especially that they be quiet and attentive; and, when in the playground, that they always conduct themselves in a peaceable, respectable, and modest manner.

IV. When the number of pupils shall exceed seventy, measures shall be taken for providing a second master or an under master.

V. The pupils shall be entered, as much as possible, at fixed terms in the course of the year.

VI. At the opening and at the breaking up of each class, a Christian prayer, solemn, short, and suitable to the occasion, shall be said daily or weekly. At the same time, a hymn, adapted to the circumstances, may be sung.

VII. The pupils shall be divided into three classes, each of which shall have its distinct place; and on every occasion when the school meets, each shall receive the instruction that belongs to it.

VIII. The instruction shall be communicated simultaneously to all the pupils in the same class; and the master shall take care that, during that time, the pupils in the two other classes are usefully employed.

IX. The instruction in the different classes, and in the different branches taught, shall be as much as possible conveyed by the use of the black board.

X. When the master shall think it advisable, he shall reward the most advanced pupils by employing them to teach some parts of the lessons to the beginners.

XI. The master shall take care that the pupils be at all times clean in their dress, well washed and combed, and he shall at the same time pay the strictest attention to every thing that may contribute to their health.

XII. The school-rooms shall be at all times kept in proper order; for that purpose they shall be ventilated in the intervals of school hours, and cleaned out twice a week.

XIII. An examination of each school shall take place at least once a year. Upon that occasion the pupils of a lower class shall be passed to a higher; and as far as circumstances will allow, rewards shall be given to those who have distinguished themselves by their application and good conduct.

XIV. When a pupil at the end of the course of study shall leave the school, if he shall have distinguished himself by the progress he has made and by his good conduct, a certificate of honor shall be presented to him.

XV. A code of regulations shall be drawn up for each particular school, and this, whether written or printed, shall be pasted on a board, hung up in the room, and from time to time read and explained by the master.

XVI. The said codes shall be issued by the authorities over each school; their object shall be, to regulate the hours of teaching and how these shall be divided among the three classes."

As the masters were prohibited from teaching any particular religious doctrine in the schools, the government, through the Secretary of State for the Home Department, addressed a circular letter to the different ecclesiastical bodies in the country, inviting them to take upon themselves, out of school hours, the whole instruction of the young, either by properly-arranged lessons in the catechism, or by any other means. Answers were returned from the Synod of the Dutch Reformed church and other ecclesiastical bodies, assenting to the separation of doctrinal from the other instruction of the schools, and pledging themselves to extend

the former through their ministers of the different religious communions. On the reception of these answers, the government authorized the provincial boards of education :

"To exhort all schoolmasters to hand a complete list, every six months of the names and residences of their pupils belonging to any religious communion to such as should apply for it ; and to take care that their pupils attend to the religious instruction provided for them.

To invite the governors of orphan asylums and workhouses, and similar establishments, to second the measures which the authorities of the communion shall take in reference to religious instruction.

To exhort the school inspectors, and through them the local school boards, to co-operate, as far as possible, with the consistories and ministers in their efforts to give instruction in the doctrines of their religion, so long as they confine themselves to their special province, and do not interfere with the business of the schools or the authority of the persons intrusted with their management by the government."

Thus did the Batavian Republic provide that the children should be prepared for "*the exercise of all the social and Christian virtues*;" well knowing, that if the schools did no more than impart a knowledge of the material world, there might be profound ignorance of the good and the beautiful, and of the true destiny of human nature.

On the practical operation of the provisions for religious and moral education, we adduce the following testimony. Mr. Kay remarks—

The law of 1801 proclaims, as the great end of all instruction, the exercise of the social and Christian virtues. In this respect it agrees with the law of Prussia and France ; but it differs from the law of these countries in the way by which it attempts to attain this end. In France, and all the German countries, the schools are the auxiliaries, so to speak, of the churches ; for, whilst the schools are open to all sects, yet the teacher is a man trained up in the particular doctrines of the majority of his pupils, and required to teach those doctrines during certain hours, the children who differ from him in religious belief, being permitted to absent themselves from the religious lessons, on condition that their parents provided elsewhere for their religious instruction. But, in Holland, the teachers are required to give religious instruction to all the children, and to avoid most carefully touching on any of the grounds of controversy between the different sects.

Mr. Nicholls says : "As respects religion, the population of Holland is divided, in about equal proportions, into Catholic, Lutheran, and Protestants of the reformed Calvinistic Church ; and the ministers of each are supported by the state. The schools contain, without distinction, the children of every sect of Christians. The religious and moral instruction afforded to the children is taken from the pages of Holy Writ, and the whole course of education is mingled with a frequent reference to the great general evidences of revelation. Biblical history is taught, not as a dry narration of facts, but as a store-house of truths, calculated to influence the affections, to correct and elevate the manners, and to inspire sentiments of devotion and virtue. The great principles and truths of Christianity, in which all are agreed, are likewise carefully inculcated ; but those points, which are the subjects of difference and religious controversy, form no part of the instructions of the schools. This department of religious teaching is confided to the ministers of each persuasion, who discharge this portion of their duties out of school ; but within the schools the common ground of instruction is faithfully preserved, and they are, consequently, altogether free from the spirit of jealousy or proselytism. We witnessed the exercise of a class of the children of notables of Haarlem, (according to the simultaneous method,) respecting the death and resurrection of

our Saviour, by a minister of the Lutheran church. The class contained children of Catholics, Calvinists, and other denominations of Christians, as well as Lutherans, and all disputable doctrinal points were carefully avoided. The Lutherans are the smallest in number, the Calvinists the largest, and the Catholics about midway between the two; but all appear to live together in perfect amity, without the slightest distinction in the common intercourse of life; and this circumstance, so extremely interesting in itself, no doubt facilitated the establishment of the general system of education here described, the effects of which are so apparent in the highly moral and intellectual condition of the Dutch people."

Baron Cuvier, in his report to the French government in 1811, says:

The means devised for the religious instruction of all persuasions are extremely ingenious, and at the same time highly appropriate, without involving them in dangerous controversy. The particular doctrines of each communion are taught on Sundays, in the several places of worship, and by the clergy. The history of the New Testament, the life and doctrines of Jesus Christ, and those doctrines in which all Christians agree, are taught in the schools on Saturdays, the day on which the Jews do not come to school, on account of their sabbath. But those truths which are common to all religions, pervade, are connected with, and are intimately mixed up with every branch of instruction, and every thing else may be said to be subordinate to them.

Mr. Chambers, of Edinburgh, in describing a visit to the public school of Rotterdam in the *Edinburgh Journal*, observes:

Instruction is given in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history of Holland, Bible history, and singing. I made inquiry of the head master, if any religious (dogmatic) instruction was given in the school, and he answered there was not. The children belong to different religious bodies and attend their respective clergymen on stated occasions, for instruction in the doctrines and principles of religion. The Bible history which is taught in the schools comprises only parts, in the truth of which all parties agree. The great regularity and silence which prevailed, the extent of the gratuitous instruction conferred, and the harmonious congregating together in one school of so many children of different religious creeds, were circumstances which I could not pass over unmoved; my only wish that the mass of my countrymen could conveniently have been introduced to enjoy the scene.

All the children of Holland may not, indeed, be at school at any given time, but every one goes to school at some time, and therefore there are none without education. This result is sensibly observed in the aspect of the Dutch towns. You see no bands of loose and disorderly children in the streets, such as offend the eye in the lower parts of almost every large town in Britain.

In all of the Dutch schools, habits of propriety, cleanliness, and order, are, not only in, but out of doors, strictly enforced, as well as practically illustrated in the manners of the teacher. Mr. Chambers quotes in a note the remark of a correspondent of the *London Standard*, that "in no country is the mass of the people so religious, showing that the mode of education has not hurt religion."

Mr. Arnold, Inspector of Schools in England, in his "*Report on Popular Education in France, Switzerland, and Holland*," in 1860, says:

I have seen no primary schools worthy to be matched, even now, with those of Holland. Other far more competent observers have come to the same conclusion. M. Cuvier has described the emotion of astonishment and delight with which, on his first entrance into one of them, he was struck. As he found the law in 1811, so M. Cousin found it in 1836; the same fruits it was bearing in 1836, it had been bearing in 1811; and for them he expressed the highest admiration. Such is the present excellent situation of primary instruction. In Prussia it may be even somewhat more widely diffused; but nowhere, probably, has it more thorough soundness or solidity.

REMARKS ON THE MIXED SCHOOL SYSTEM OF HOLLAND.

THE following remarks on the experience of Holland in attempting to exclude the peculiar teaching of different religious denominations are taken from Schmid's "Encyclopädie, &c.:"

The more decided the influence which the removal of the sectarian element from the public school must by degrees exert upon the national life, the more attentively should we study the experience of Holland in its system of mixed schools.

There still exists so little uniformity of opinion respecting the estimation that should be placed upon the regulations adopted since 1806, that during the last ten years, for the first time really, the subject has been warmly contested; and even through the Groenist opposition suffered in 1857 a decided defeat, yet that event did not decisively settle the question. In a contest like this the more rudely opinions clash, the more careful must we be not to lose sight of the actual working of the system. And should we find in its operation certain distinctly marked results presenting themselves, we still are met at once by the difficulty of separating the influence which the school exerts upon the life and upon the moral and religious character of the people, from the influence which is exerted by other causes. Moreover the space of three years is far too brief to enable us to estimate already the real influence of the law of 1857. It becomes necessary, therefore, to recur to the results of the period intervening between 1806 and 1856; this, however, will answer our purpose sufficiently, inasmuch as the same results, though more decided in degree, must be developed from the new condition of things.

Let us look at the circumstances to which the ordinance of April 8, 1806, owed its origin. Prior to that date, the Protestant influence in the Netherlands had possessed absolute control even over the schools, though during the eighteenth century respect for the opinions of the clergy had even here greatly declined. The deistical ideas which had become prevalent respecting Christian truth, acknowledged no occasion for the life which the church required nor for the regulations which the church laid down. The political movements of 1795, however, inaugurated an equality of rights to the small Roman Catholic population, and this minority could not protect itself more effectually than by sustaining a law which took from the public schools their original Protestant character, and banished from them the catechism and all sectarian instruction. A portion

of the population of the cities was but slightly effected by these measures; instruction was here obtained in a large degree at the private schools of the second class, which, as well as the many poor-schools (*Diakonie schuler*) of the church, and others, still for ten years longer preserved their sectarian position, and continued the use of the Bible and the practice of Christian admonitions. It was soon seen that this equality of parties existed only on paper, and that the reformed church hoped still to preserve for a long time its former ascendancy, principally by its instrumentality in the training of by far the greater portion of the teachers. This was also favored by the indifference of the popular feeling, at that time, to the movements of the church, while on the other hand there was on the part of many an earnest endeavor to effect a fusion, religious and civil, of the entire nation into one whole, in order to render the establishment of purely secular schools in the Netherlands not only possible but desirable.

But the principle that had been adopted, soon extended farther than the majority had expected. The development of the matter was somewhat as follows: The Bible at first still retained its place in the communal schools, and it was not till about the year 1816 that it began to disappear from them. Soon after the union of the Netherlands with Belgium, people were generally satisfied to have the Bible excluded from all save the evening schools. But when the evening schools also were attended by Catholic children, it became necessary that the Bible should give place here too, and it was permitted only once or twice a week to those who desired it, for a half or a quarter of an hour after the usual school hours. The reading of the Bible was to this extent restricted in the province of North Holland by a decree of the governor, in 1821. After 1830 there seems to have been a willingness to adopt a better course, as when in 1835 the provincial school committee of Gröningen directed in a circular to the teachers, that "the Bible ought to be read and explained catechetically, and exemplified by the teacher in his daily life." In 1842 attention was again called to this provision—but after this time, not the least mention is made of the use of the Bible; on the contrary, an ordinance was soon afterward issued by the governor of South Holland, forbidding the reading of the Bible "even in schools that were attended exclusively by Protestant children." If any teacher ventured to adopt a different course, it was always followed by unpleasant consequences. Thus in 1853 a teacher in the province of Utrecht was suspended by a decision of the provincial authorities "because he had used the Bible during the usual session of school as a reading book to read from to the school, and then for the purpose of explaining what had been read." The use of the Bible in school is still, at this day, to be met with only in exceptional instances, worthy of all commendation, in parishes that are wholly Protestant.

With Biblical history, the course of removal from the schools was more gradual. Opposition to this study commenced in 1830, at which time there were some Catholics, in South Holland, for example,

who made objections to the reading of the books of biblical history, that had been in use for years. Their demands were not immediately heeded, except that, in order to avoid ground for dispute, all explanation of the lesson was so far restricted that the benefit of the study was almost entirely lost. But this was not sufficient. In 1842, the bishop of the diocese, in an address to the provincial authorities, complained that the rights that had been assured to the Catholic population were violated by this instruction. Though this memorial also was followed by no public action on the part of the authorities, yet it hastened the desired removal. When it was not done voluntarily, a word of friendly council from the school superintendent, or from the mayor, sufficed. Thus in a parish of Gelderland, where among some 200 boys, there were fifteen or twenty Catholics, this study was given up at the request of the pastor. In other places the Catholic children were dismissed at the commencement of the exercise, and the mixed school thus immediately became Protestant in character. In 1853, a synodical committee of the reform church, in a report upon the condition of the churches, thus wrote; "It is well known that some civil authorities, and even superintendents of schools, in compliance with the demands of the Roman Catholic clergy, and in a spirit of perverted liberality, have requested, and in some cases, commanded the public teachers to discard the study of biblical history. * * * Hence the Christian element in the public schools has become weakened to an alarming extent." Biblical history is now to be met with only occasionally in the school-room, and when it is made use of, it is not regarded as a history of God's dealings with erring humanity, and as a mirror for the heart and life, but as a collection of biographies, and of examples worthy of imitation. The opinion is continually gaining ground that this branch of study should never be included in the public school course.

Though this result may be considered only as consequential, still it can not but be deplored most seriously, that under the name of the sectarian element, the hold of Christianity also upon the schools has been removed, and their condition in this respect, as plainly seen, is most sad.

As an acquaintance with the Holy Scriptures is most essential to the Protestant faith, so their removal from the schools is a dangerous attack upon our Protestant youth. The Bible has begun to be a strange book to the great majority of Protestants. Many suppose that it is impossible for them to understand it; others, that it is of value only to those who are theologians by profession; others again use it only in the church, for reference during service; the old family custom of beginning and closing each day with reading and meditating upon a portion of Scripture, is gradually passing away. No one therefore will wonder that more communities can be found, where for forty years nothing has been done toward imparting biblical instruction, than where it has received the attention it deserves. In regard to biblical history, we find a sad degree of ignorance, especially where it requires an understanding of the inti-

mate connection of events. We may thus account for the present imperfect and disconnected knowledge of the simplest Christian ideas, the more strange, inasmuch as formerly an intimate and practical acquaintance with religious subjects was general throughout our land. But not alone from the church do we hear a confirmation of these complaints; the preacher Van Koetsveld, writes: "The principles of Christianity in our public schools have been by degrees so supplanted by fiction and speculation, that, owing to the hostility of school committees and superintendents, it is now only here and there that, as a matter of favor, they have been suffered to remain." The synodical committee of 1856 make use of a similar expression; "one of the principal causes of these many deplorable evils, lies in the great want of sound and thorough religious information, and true Christian training. This want, which is to be met with not only among the humble, but also among the more respectable, and not unfrequently in the well educated members of society, is most intimately connected with the tendencies of our time." The same complaints, and with special reference to the schools, are made by that most zealous defender of the mixed school system, the editor of the "*Alarum*" (Wecker,) in considering the objection that might be made to his demand that biblical history should be retained in the mixed schools; he thus writes in the number for 30th April, 1857: "Are the teachers generally qualified to give the desired instruction in the manner which the public school requires? We can only answer this question in the negative. Where can young teachers now be found, who are so far advanced in the knowledge of biblical history, that they can use it for the purposes of school instruction? Look around you, and you will be convinced of the excessive ignorance upon this subject, that exists among our new teachers. How can a duty be devolved upon such teachers, for the performance of which they are wholly unprepared?" And again he says, upon the same subject; "We must assent to all these grievances, and mourn that biblical history is not at this time a subject of special study with those who are preparing themselves for an examination in the school branches. If, however, we inquire what has been done in regard to this by the school commission, the sad truth is seen prominently conspicuous. The school authorities themselves unfortunately share in the opinion that it is unnecessary to require of the teacher a special knowledge of biblical history, and the ability to make it accessory to a Christian education."

But the effect of the school law upon the study of national history is not to be overlooked. It is not, indeed, removed from the schools so generally as the other; still there is ground for much complaint. In the reading and text-books, as well as in oral instruction, pains are taken to clear our history of that which has given it the most of character and life—its Protestant element. In this way the youth have their fathers represented to them, not as they actually lived, believed, and acted, but as it might now be wished, for peace' sake, that they had lived, believed,

and acted. Thus in one school, this erroneous instruction is given; in another, the subject is omitted entirely; and almost everywhere in the mixed schools, text-books are used which conceal, or touch but lightly upon what has in fact laid the foundation of the progress and prosperity of our country. As an illustration from one of the most popular of these histories, (*Kunivers'*) the revolt against Spain is described as being simply and entirely political in its purpose, and the followers of Luther and Calvin, are represented as a sect dangerous to the peace of society, &c. Others do not go so far; yet their statements make upon every one the impression that, in their opinion, the period in which our ancestors ascended the funeral pile and the scaffold, was one of which the pupils in the lower and intermediate schools should learn as little as possible. The truths upon which the foundations of our state rest, and which have preserved us from the fate of Spain and Italy, and have sealed an inviolable bond between our fatherland and Orange, these truths should be passed by without notice in the mixed schools; they should read only of the distraction that accompanied the introduction of the new doctrines. Thus will the Christian Protestantism of the popular character be weakened, and, in its place, in regard to all Christian and ecclesiastical questions, there will be introduced a lukewarm liberalism, which will impress the stamp of imperfection and irresolution upon all legislative measures.

What has been substituted for the sound religious instruction of former times in the schools? A conventional morality, a dry abstract of Christian ethics, as testified by Visser, a zealous champion of mixed schools, and superintendent in Friesland, who wrote as far back as 1821; "In the religious and moral training of most of the schools there is very much to be desired. On account of the banishment of the catechism and the prohibition of the unrestricted use of the Bible, many teachers have become of the opinion that henceforth every thing relating to the service of God must be excluded from the schools. Hence they have introduced, in place of what has been removed, a dry compilation of moral precepts, which are well adapted to train up the children to be theorists, but in no respect to make them practical people." And even this they teach from text-books prepared for the purpose. We have now almost achieved the result that was proposed by some one in 1827, that upon entering a school it should be impossible to determine whether the teacher were a Christian, a Jew, or a Turk. The school prayer at least would not betray the fact, in most cases. It is and must be so void of hue that many just omit it, and make amends by the singing of a song at the beginning and close of the school. Respecting the school books, pastor Nassau thus wrote in 1843; "There is good ground for complaint that many school-books propagate doctrines that are hostile to Christianity, and to the welfare of humanity. It is taught in these books that extraordinary happiness will attend good little children for their excellence, and evil, the naughty ones; and that no good act indeed is so insignificant as not to bring with it its percentage of temporal happiness." Such facts accord perfectly with that

false view of the relations of Christian truth to our daily life, which prompted the following examination question, in Friesland, May 2, 1859: "What means would you use, in case you thought it befitting the teacher's calling, to assist to the extent of your ability in forming the moral character of your scholars?" How nearly must the Christian character of the school be lost, where the school authorities touch so doubtfully upon matters of the first importance?

We can not better conclude these remarks, and our criticism upon the mixed school system, than with the opinion expressed by the Netherland Teachers' Association, in December, 1858, at which time Hofstede de Groot, was still presiding officer: "the law of 18th of August, is in many respects a good law. Our approval, however, is considerably modified by the fact of its giving so little security to the principles of the Christian church. If the inspectors and superintendents are convinced of the necessity of those principles, it is still possible that their influence may be preserved,—but where this is not the case, it may speedily result in their utter extinction."—(*Communicated by an Evangelical Minister of Holland*)

LAW OF PRIMARY INSTRUCTION IN HOLLAND.

PROMULGATED AUGUST 13, 1857.

We William III. by the Grace of God, King of the Netherlands, Prince of Orange-Nassau, Grand Duke of Luxembourg, &c., &c.

To all who shall see or hear these, greeting:

WHEREAS, We have taken into consideration that (Article 194,) of the Fundamental Law provides that the establishment of public instruction, with due respect to every man's religious principles, shall be regulated by law; that throughout the kingdom sufficient public primary instruction shall be given on the part of the authorities, and that education shall be free,* subject always to the superintendence of the authorities, and, as far as concerns middle and primary instruction, subject also to examination into the capacity and morality of the master; all of this to be established by law;

That, in the meanwhile, and until provision shall be made for the regulation of middle and higher instruction, it is necessary to give effect to these provisions as far as primary instruction is concerned;

Therefore We, having heard the Council of State, and by and with the advice of the States General, have thought good and determined as We think good, and determine by these presents:

I. GENERAL PROVISIONS.

ARTICLE 1. Primary instruction is distinguished into ordinary and more extended instruction.

Ordinary instruction includes:—

- a. Reading.
- b. Writing.
- c. Arithmetic.
- d. The principles of Grammar
- e. of the Dutch language.
- f. of Geography.
- g. of History.
- h. of Physics.
- i. Singing.

The more extended instruction is considered to include:—

- k. The principles of the knowledge of the Modern Languages.
- l. of Mathematics.
- m. of Agriculture.
- n. Gymnastics.
- o. Drawing.
- p. Needlework.

ART. 2. Primary instruction may be given either in schools, or in the houses of the parents or guardians of the children.

The former is school education, the latter private education.

Instruction given to the children collectively of not more than three families shall still be considered as private education.

ART. 3. Primary schools shall be distinguished as public and private schools.

* Not gratuitous, but liberty to teach and establish and attend schools

Public schools are those established and maintained by the communes, the provinces, and the government, severally or in common; all others are private schools.

Assistance may be granted to private schools on the part either of the commune or of the province under such conditions as the communal or provincial authority may deem necessary. Schools thus assisted shall be open to any children, without distinction of religious creed. The 1st and 2d clauses of (Art. 23,) are applicable to these schools.

ART. 4. No school instruction shall be given in such buildings as shall be pronounced detrimental to health by the district school inspector, or insufficient in point of room for the number of children attending the school. In the event of the decision of this officer not being acquiesced in, the matter shall be decided by the States Deputies, after a fresh and independent inquiry.

Further appeal,* from the decision of the school inspector as well as from that of the States Deputies, must be made within fourteen days, counted from the day when notice of the decision has been received by the parties interested.

All those are qualified thus to appeal to whose prejudice the decision may operate; that is to say, the parents or guardians of the children attending the school, if the school inspector shall have acquiesced in the decision of the States Deputies. Pending the final decision, instruction may continue to be given in the building objected to.

ART. 5. School education shall be given by head masters and assistant teachers, head mistresses and female assistant teachers, and both male and female apprentice teachers.

Apprentice teachers are those who, not having yet attained the age at which they can be admitted for examination as assistant teachers, assist in giving school instruction.

Having attained that age, they may continue as apprentice teachers during the time that is yet to elapse before they can be admitted for examination. Apprentice teachers failing to pass the examination mentioned in the 2d and 3d clauses, or having been unable, for reasons satisfactory to the provincial inspector, to present themselves for examination, may notwithstanding continue as apprentice teachers until the next examination.

ART. 6. Nobody is allowed to give primary instruction, who shall not possess the proofs of capacity and morality required by this law.

Foreigners require, besides, Our permission.

ART. 7. The provisions of the preceding Article are not applicable to—

a. The apprentice teachers, as far as instruction is concerned in the school where they are employed;

b. Those who give primary instruction to the children of one family exclusively;

c. Those who, not making a profession of primary instruction, but being willing to be employed without any pecuniary remuneration, may have obtained Our permission to give such instruction.

d. Candidates and Doctors in Arts and Sciences in so far as by reason of their academical degrees they are qualified to give instruction in one or other of the branches mentioned in (Art. 1.)

ART. 8. Any person giving primary instruction without being qualified, or in

* This final appeal is to the Minister for the Home Department. See (Art. 13.) of this Law.

violation of the 1st clause of (Art. 4,) shall for the first offense be punished with a fine of twenty-five and not exceeding fifty florins; for the second offense with a fine of fifty and not exceeding a hundred florins, and imprisonment for eight, and not exceeding fourteen days, cumulatively or separately; and for each subsequent offense with imprisonment for one month and not exceeding one year.

Any person giving primary instruction beyond the limits of his qualification, shall be liable to half the amount and duration of the above-mentioned punishments. Assistant teachers, temporarily placed at the head of a school, provided the temporary occupation does not last longer than six months, are excepted from these provisions—(Art. 463,) of the Penal Code, and (Art. 20,) of the Law of the 29th of June, 1854, (Staatsblad, No. 102,) are applicable to these provisions.

ART. 9. On every judgment of fine it shall be declared by the judge that, on failure of payment of the fine and costs by the offender within two months after having been summoned to pay, the penalty inflicted shall be changed into imprisonment for not more than fourteen days, if the fine exceeds fifty florins, and for not more than seven days if a fine not exceeding fifty florins has been imposed.

ART. 10. Except in the cases mentioned hereafter, the qualification to give primary instruction ceases for any person condemned by final sentence,—

a. for crime.

b. for theft, swindling, perjury, breach of trust or immoral conduct.

ART. 11. Any person having lost his qualification for giving primary instruction, can not recover it.

In the cases mentioned in the 7th clause of (Art. 22,) and in (Art. 39,) it can be granted again by Us.

ART. 12. For the education of teachers there shall be at least two Government training schools; and normal lessons shall be established in connection with some of the best primary schools by the authority of the Government.

The education of male and female teachers in the primary schools shall be promoted by State authority as much as possible.

ART. 13. From every decision taken by the States Deputies in virtue of this law, an appeal lies to Us.

ART. 14. The provisions of this law concerning male teachers are likewise applicable to female teachers, as far as it does not contain any exceptions for the latter.

ART. 15. This law is not applicable;—

a. To those who give instruction exclusively in one of the branches mentioned in the classes marked *t*, *n*, *a*, and *p*, of (Art. 1,) and to the schools destined for those purposes.

b. To military instructors and the instruction given by them to military men.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

1. Schools.

ART. 16. In every commune, primary instruction shall be given in a certain number of schools, sufficient for the number and requirements of the population, and open to any children, without distinction of religious creed.

The instruction shall include at least the branches classed from *a*, to *t*, in (Art. 1.) Wherever any want exists of extension, such being practicable, all the branches classed from *k*, to *p*, in (Art. 1,) or one or more of them, shall be included in the instruction.

Two or more adjoining communes may, in conformity with (Art. 121,) of the Law of June 29, 1851, (Staatsblad, No. 85,) join in the establishment and maintenance of united schools.

ART. 17. The council of the commune, shall fix the number of schools. Its resolution shall be communicated to the States Deputies.

If the States Deputies think the number insufficient, they shall order an augmentation.

If it shall appear insufficient to Us, an augmentation may be ordered by Us.

The extension of instruction mentioned in the (2d clause of the last Article,) shall be established in the same way.

2. Teachers.

ART. 18. If the number of pupils in one school shall exceed seventy, the head-master shall be assisted by one apprentice teacher; in schools not exceeding one hundred, by one assistant teacher; exceeding one hundred and fifty, by one assistant and one apprentice. Beyond the latter number, he shall be assisted by one apprentice for fifty, and by one assistant for one hundred pupils respectively.

ART. 19. A yearly salary shall be assigned to every head master, besides a house rent free, with a garden, if possible.

In case no house rent free can be provided for him, he shall receive an equitable compensation for house rent.

In case of disagreement between the council of the commune, and the teacher with respect to the amount of such compensation, the question shall be decided by the States Deputies.

For every apprentice mentioned in the last article, an additional sum shall be granted to the head master.

To every assistant teacher a yearly salary shall be assigned.

The yearly salaries and additions shall be fixed by the council of the commune, subject to the approbation of the States Deputies.

The amount of the yearly salary for a head master shall be at least 400 florins; for an assistant teacher at least 200 florins. The amount of the additional sum shall be at least 25 florins.

ART. 20. In those communes where, on account of their large and scattered population, a greater number of schools shall be required than otherwise would be necessary, a head master or assistant teacher, whose yearly salary shall be at least 200 florins, may be placed at the head of those schools respectively, subject to the approbation of the States Deputies.

ART. 21. In order to be qualified for the appointment of head master or assistant teacher, the candidate is required to possess—

a. A certificate of capacity to give school instruction.

b. Testimonials of good moral conduct delivered by the council of administration of the commune or communes where the candidate has been living during the last two years.

ART. 22. The head masters shall be appointed by the council of the commune, from a list containing not less than three, nor more than six names, prepared by the burgomasters and councilors, in concert with the district school inspector, after a competitive examination conducted by the latter, or under his inspection, in presence of the burgomaster and councilors, or of a deputation from their body, and of the local committee for school affairs, or of a deputation

from that committee. The members of the council of the commune shall be invited to be present at the examination.

The assistant teachers shall be appointed by the council of the commune from a list containing three names prepared by the burgomaster and councilors, in concert with the head master and the district school inspector.

The head masters and assistant teachers may be suspended by the burgomaster and councilors, after consultation with the school inspector. The burgomaster and councilors shall give as soon as possible an account of their decision to the council of the commune.

The head masters and assistant teachers may be dismissed by the council of the commune on the requisition of the burgomaster and the councilors, and the district school inspector. Resignations must be made to the council of the commune directly.

If suspension or dismissal should be necessary, either according to the opinion of the local committee for school affairs, or of the district school inspector, and the common council delay or refuse to proceed thereto, such suspension or dismissal may be effected by the States Deputies.

Suspension shall never exceed a term of three months, and the salary may continue to be paid, or be partially or entirely withheld during suspension.

Those who are dismissed on account of scandalous conduct, or of propagation of doctrines inconsistent with morality, or tending to excite disobedience to the laws of the country, may be declared by the States Deputies to have lost their qualification to give instruction.

The appointment and dismissal of apprentice teachers is made by the head master, subject to the approbation of the district school inspector.

In cases of suspension, of dismissal, or of a vacancy in the place of head master or assistant teacher, the burgomaster and councilors shall provide for the temporary occupation of the vacant place; in the case of a head master, in concert with the district school inspector, and with the head master in the case of an assistant teacher. The place of head master shall be filled up within six months at least after becoming vacant.

ART. 23. The system of education in the schools, while imparting suitable and useful information, shall be made conducive to the development of the intellectual capacities of the children, and to their training in all Christian and social virtues.

The teacher shall abstain from teaching or permitting to be taught any thing inconsistent with the respect due to the religious opinions of dissenters. Religious instruction is left to the ecclesiastical communities. The school-rooms shall be at their disposal for that purpose out of school hours, for the benefit of children attending the school.

ART. 24. The head master and assistant teachers are not allowed to hold any office or employment otherwise than with the approbation of the States Deputies, after consultation with the burgomaster and councilors, and in communes of 3,000 inhabitants and upward, with the local committee for school affairs, and in other communes with the district school inspector. They are not allowed to carry on any business, to work at any trade, or to exercise any profession: this prohibition is applicable also to the members of the families of the head masters and assistant teachers, as far as relates to carrying on the prohibited occupation in their houses.

ART. 25. The head master and assistant teachers shall be entitled to a pension from Government in the following cases and under the conditions thereto annexed.

ART. 26. A right to a pension is acquired after receiving an honorable discharge on acquiring the age of sixty-five years, and completing the period of forty years' service.

A pension may likewise be granted to those who after ten years' service have become incapable of performing the duties of their calling on account either of mental or bodily infirmities, and have received an honorable discharge on such grounds.

The incapacity shall be established by the declaration of the district school inspector and of the States Deputies. In calculating the amount of the pension, such services only shall be taken into consideration as may have been performed as head master or as assistant master under this law, or previously to this law coming into operation, as teacher of a public school, being engaged in primary instruction.

Those who have not received an honorable discharge, forfeit their right to a pension.

ART. 27. The pension shall amount for each year's service to one-sixtieth part of the yearly salary which during the last twelve months previous to an honorable discharge may have served as a basis for the payment of the contributions mentioned in (Art. 28:) it shall not however in any case exceed two-thirds of such yearly salary.

ART. 28. As a contribution to the pension fund, the head masters and assistant teachers shall pay from the day on which this law comes into operation, two per cent. per annum, of the yearly salary annexed to their appointment. This contribution shall be collected on behalf of the State, at the charge of the officers of the commune, and accounted for to the public treasury.

ART. 29. Those communes in which any head masters or assistant teachers shall be pensioned by virtue of this law, shall make good to the Government a third part of the amount of such pensions.

ART. 30. The provisions of (Arts. 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 37, 40, and 41,) of the Law of 9th May, 1846, (Staatsblad, No. 24,) with the alterations enacted by the Law of 3d May, 1851, (Staatsblad, No. 49,) are applicable to pensions of head masters and assistant teachers.

3. Support.

ART. 31. Each commune shall provide for the charges of its primary instruction, as far as these charges are not imposed upon others, or shall not be provided for in any other manner.

ART. 32. These charges are:—

- a. The yearly salary of the head masters and assistant teachers.
- b. The additional remuneration on account of apprentice teachers.
- c. The charges for the erection and maintenance, or for hire of school-buildings.
- d. For providing and keeping in order the school furniture and school books, and for other school necessities for the pupils.
- e. For light and fire required for the school-rooms.
- f. For the erection and maintenance, or for hire of dwelling-houses for the teachers.

- g. Compensation to the head masters in lieu of a house rent free.
- h. The contribution of the commune to the pension of the teachers.
- i. The expenses of the local school committee.

ART. 33. To meet these charges a payment may be required from each child attending the school. Children supported by public charity, and such as, though not receiving relief, are unable to pay for their schooling, shall not be called upon for this payment.

The council of the commune shall provide as far as possible for the school attendance of children of parents receiving relief or in indigent circumstances.

ART. 34. The fixing of the amount of the school money, as well as any alteration of such amount, or the entire remission of it, shall be effected in conformity with (Arts. 232—236,) of the Law of 29th of June, 1851. (*Staatsblad*, No. 85.)

The collection shall be regulated by a local order, in conformity with the provisions of (Arts. 258—262,) of the same Law.

ART. 35. The school money shall be the same for all children of the same class in any school.

For two or more children of the same family, attending school at the same time, the rate of payment may be reduced.

ART. 36. If, after inquiry by the States Deputies, and after the report thereon of the States of the province, We shall judge any commune to be too heavily charged by the expenditure requisite for suitable establishments of primary instruction, such portion thereof as shall continue to be charged upon the commune shall be fixed by Us, and the deficiency shall be provided for by the province, and by the Government, in the proportion of one moiety by each.

III. PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

ART. 37. For conducting education in private schools, or in private houses, the following qualifications are required:

- a. A Certificate of Capacity.
- b. Testimonials of the same description as those mentioned in (Art. 21.) Letter c.
- c. A Certificate that both these documents have been seen and found in due order by the burgomaster and councilors of the commune where the instruction is to be given.

ART. 38. The burgomaster and councilors shall give their decision respecting the issue of the certificate, mentioned under Letter c, in (Article 37,) within four weeks, to be counted from the date of the claim of such certificate. An appeal may be made from such decision to the States Deputies, or an appeal be made if no decision shall have been communicated to the parties interested within the above mentioned period. After rejection of appeal by the States Deputies, or in default of notice of their decision within six weeks to the parties interested, an appeal may be made to Us.

ART. 39. Teachers who, in conducting education in private schools, or in private houses, shall propagate doctrines inconsistent with morality, or tending to excite disobedience to the laws of the country, may, on presentment by the burgomaster and councilors, by the local school committee, or by the district school inspector, be declared by the States Deputies to have lost their qualification to give instruction.

This provision is also applicable to such teachers as make themselves obnoxious to the charge of scandalous conduct.

IV. AUTHORIZATION TO ESTABLISH OR TEACH PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

ART. 40. Certificates of capacity for conducting education in private schools and private houses are to be obtained by passing examinations.

ART. 41. An opportunity for such examination shall be afforded twice a year in each province by a committee, composed of the superintendent and four school inspectors.

This board shall hold its sittings in the principal town of the province. It shall be competent to attach to itself assessors, having special acquirements.

The appointment of the school inspectors and the fixing of the time of meeting of the boards, shall be settled by Our Minister of the Interior.

The examinations shall be held in public, except those of female teachers.

ART. 42. The time when the examinations are to take place, shall be made known to the public by advertisement.

Any person desiring to present himself for examination, shall apply in due time to the school inspector of the district where he resides, or where, if a stranger, he intends to establish himself, with notice of the description of certificate which he requires.

He must further produce one or more testimonials of his good moral conduct, and his certificate of birth.

The time and the place of the examination will be communicated to him by the school inspector.

He shall present himself for examination in the province where he resides, or, if a stranger, in that where he intends to establish himself.

ART. 43. In order to be admitted for examination the candidate must have attained the proper age; this is fixed at eighteen years for private and assistant teachers of either sex, at twenty-three years for head masters and head mistresses.

ART. 44. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining a certificate of capacity as assistant teachers of either sex, are required:—

To read and write well.

To have an adequate knowledge of analysis, of the rules of spelling, and of the elements of the Dutch language.

To be able to express themselves with correctness and ease, as well orally as in writing.

To know the principles of grammar.

To know arithmetic, in whole numbers as well as in vulgar and decimal fractions, applied to money, weights, and measures; in addition to this, the male candidates are required to know the system of logarithms.

To be acquainted with geography and history.

To know the principles of natural philosophy.

To know the theory of singing.

To know the principles of teaching and education.

ART. 45. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining certificates of capacity as head mistresses are required to possess attainments of the same description as those required of assistant teachers, but more advanced, and with application to their profession as head mistresses.

ART. 46. Candidates for examination for the purpose of obtaining certificates of capacity as head masters are required to possess attainments of the same description as those required from assistant teachers, but more advanced, comprehensive, and developed.

ART. 47. Candidates desiring to obtain, or having already obtained, one of the certificates mentioned in the last three articles, may, at their request, be further examined in one or more of the subjects marked from *k*, to *p*, in (Art. 1.)

ART. 48. The examination for obtaining a certificate of capacity as private teacher, of either sex, embraces one or more of the subjects mentioned in (Art. 1.)

For that purpose, equal attainments at least are required as from assistant teachers.

ART. 49. When the examination has been passed to the satisfaction of the board, they shall deliver the certificate required to the candidate.

The subject or subjects of more comprehensive primary instruction, in which the candidate may have passed his examination successfully, shall be recorded in the certificate of capacity to give school instruction.

In like manner a record shall be made, in certificates of capacity to give private lessons, of any other subjects of primary instruction in which the examination has been successfully passed.

ART. 50. Certificates of capacity shall be delivered on payment of ten florins for those of head masters or head mistresses; five florins for those of assistant teachers of either sex; five florins for those of private teachers, either male or female, in more than one subject; three florins for those of a private teacher, either male or female, in one subject only.

For the first record (as mentioned in clauses 2 and 3 of the preceding Art.) in the certificate of school instruction, three florins shall be paid, and in that for private tuition in one subject, only two florins. The first record in the certificate for private tuition in more than one subject, and any further records in general, shall be made gratuitously.

The above mentioned sums are to provide for the expenses of the meetings of the boards, including the remuneration to the assessors. The surplus shall be paid over to the public treasury.

ART. 51. Certificates of capacity shall be valid for the whole kingdom.

Certificates for school instruction shall be also valid for private tuition.

Certificates for private tuition also qualify the holders to give instruction in a school, in one or more of the subjects marked *b*, *c*, and from *i*, to *p*, inclusive, (Art. 1.)

Certificates of capacity as head master or head mistress qualify them equally to hold the place of assistant teachers.

In addition to the cases provided for in (Art. 20,) the certificate of assistant teachers may, under the conditions to be prescribed by Ua, qualify the holder to be at the head of a public school.

V. SUPERINTENDENCE.

ART. 52. The superintendence of education, subject to the supervision of Our Minister of the Interior, is conferred upon—

- a. Local committees for school affairs.
- b. District school inspectors.
- c. Provincial superintendents.

ART. 53. There shall be in every commune a committee for school affairs.

In communes united by virtue of the 3d clause of (Art. 16,) for the purposes of the erection and maintenance of joint schools, there shall be a joint committee.

ART. 54. In communes of less than 3,000 inhabitants, the duties of the local committee for school affairs are transferred to the burgomaster and councilors.

In other communes the committees shall be appointed by the council of the commune.

The office of member of the committee may be held with that of member of the council of the commune.

ART. 55. Every province shall be divided by Us into school districts.

Every district shall be placed under the charge of a school inspector.

In case of decease, sickness, or absence of the school inspector, provision may be made for the performance of his duties by Our Minister of the Interior.

ART. 56. The school inspector shall be appointed by Us for the period of six years.

On the expiration of their period of service, they may be re-appointed.

They may be dismissed at any time by Us.

ART. 57. The school inspectors shall receive a certain sum from the public treasury, as compensation for their traveling expenses and maintenance.

ART. 58. In each province there shall be one superintendent (provincial inspector.)

The superintendents shall be appointed by Us. They may be dismissed at any time by Us.

They shall receive from the public treasury a yearly salary, and compensation for their traveling expenses and maintenance.

ART. 59. The superintendents shall be summoned to meet together once a year, by Our Minister of the Interior, for the purpose of deliberating upon and promoting, under his authority, the general interests of primary instruction.

ART. 60. The superintendents shall hold no office or employment without Our permission.

ART. 61. The members of the local committees for school affairs, the school inspectors, and the superintendents, before entering upon their duties, shall take an oath, or promise upon their honor, to discharge them duly and faithfully.

The oath shall be administered, or the promise accepted, in the case of members of the local committees, in communes of 3,000 inhabitants and upward, by the burgomaster; in other communes by the judge of the canton where they are living; in the case of school inspectors, by Our Commissary in the province, and in the case of superintendents, by Our Minister of the Interior.

ART. 62. The members of the local committees, the school inspectors, and the superintendents are empowered to report on any transgressions against this law, or against the further prescriptions concerning primary instruction.

ART. 63. All schools where primary instruction is given, whether public or private, shall be open at all times to the members of the local committee for school affairs, to the district school inspector, and to the superintendent of the province.

The teachers are bound to give them any information that may be required concerning the school and the instruction.

Default in this respect shall be punished with a fine of twenty-five florins, or imprisonment for three days, and for every fresh offense with both penalties

united. (Article 463,) of the Penal Code, and (Article 20,) of the Law of 29th June, 1854, (Staatsblad, No. 102,) are applicable to these cases.

ART. 64. The local committees for school affairs shall keep a careful watch over all schools in the commune where primary instruction is given. They shall visit them at least twice a year, either collectively, or by a deputation from their body. They shall take care that the regulations concerning primary instruction be strictly observed. They shall keep a record of the persons engaged in teaching, of the number of pupils, and of the state of education. They shall deliver to the council of the commune, before the 1st of March in every year, a report, with their remarks thereon, of the state of education in the commune, and they shall send a copy of this report to the district school inspector. They shall give notice to him of any considerable changes that may have taken place in the state of the schools; they shall furnish him and the provincial superintendent with all the information which they may each require; they shall afford assistance to such teachers as may ask for their advice, aid, or coöperation, and they shall make it their business to promote heartily the prosperity of education.

ART. 65. The school inspectors shall take care to be constantly and fully acquainted with the state of school affairs in their district. They shall visit at least twice a year all schools within it where primary instruction is given, and keep an accurate record of such visits. They shall take care that the regulations concerning primary instruction be strictly observed. They shall communicate with the local committees for school affairs, and with the councils of the commune; they shall lay before them, as well as the provincial superintendent, such proposals as they may think conducive to the interests of education. They shall give notice to the said superintendent of any thing which in visiting the schools has appeared to them of any importance, and provide him with all such information as he may require. They shall deliver to the superintendent, before the 1st of May in every year, a report on the state of education in their district, with their remarks thereon, and send a copy thereof to the States Deputies. They shall heartily support the interests of the teachers, promote their meetings, and be present at them, as far as possible.

ART. 66. The school inspectors shall have admittance to the meetings of all local committees for school affairs in their district, and they shall have consultative voice in such meetings.

ART. 67. The superintendents shall endeavor, both by visiting the schools and by oral and written communications with the local committees for school affairs, and with the councils of the communes, to promote the improvement and prosperity of the schools. They shall advise our Minister of the Interior on any questions respecting which their opinions may be asked. They shall prepare from the annual reports of the school inspectors a report, accompanied with their remarks, concerning the state of education in their province, and send this report, before the 1st of July in each year, to Our above mentioned Minister.

VI. PROVISIONS.

ART. 68. Teachers of either sex, both public and private, and tutors and governesses who at the time of this law coming into operation shall be lawfully engaged in such callings, require no re-appointment nor acknowledgment to continue therein.

After that time, any certificates of general admission of the 1st and 2d rank obtained previously, shall be considered as giving the same rights as certificates

of capacity as assistant teacher; those of school mistresses as giving the same rights as certificates of capacity as head mistress: but only within the province or commune where such certificates have been delivered. Tutors and governesses who after that time desire to settle as such in another commune, are obliged to submit previously to the examination mentioned in (Art. 18.)

Head masters of private schools of the 2d class in existence at the time of this law coming into operation, who hold at least the 2d rank, may in case of transfer of such schools by the council of the commune, in concert with the district school inspector, as public primary schools, be appointed as head masters of such institutions.

The provisions of (Art. 22,) concerning the proposal of names and the competitive examination, are not applicable to these cases.

ART. 69. The yearly salaries of all public head masters and head mistresses in actual service at the time of this law coming into operation shall, as long as they continue to hold their places, in no case be fixed at an amount less than the income which they have been receiving yearly, at an average, during the five years next preceding the above date; or, for those who have been in service for a shorter time, during such shorter period.

ART. 70. To carry into effect the provisions respecting the fixing of the number of schools in proportion to the population and their wants, and the extension of the instruction (Arts. 16 and 17,) the assistance in teaching to be afforded to the head master (Art. 18,) the yearly salaries and other emoluments of the head masters and assistant teachers, and the additional remuneration on account of the apprentice teachers (Arts. 19 and 20,) and the expenses of education (Arts. 31—35,)—a term of three years at most is allowed, reckoning from the date of this law coming into operation.

During such term the yearly salaries and contributions of the provinces and of the Government shall be paid to the head masters and head mistresses and to the communes at the rate of their receipts for the time being, at the date of this law coming into operation.

ART. 71. Private schools in receipt of assistance, at the date of this law coming into operation, from the commune or from the province, and not fulfilling the condition of the 4th clause of (Art. 3,) can not continue to receive such assistance for a period exceeding one year from the date first above mentioned.

ART. 72. Pending a settlement by law of the system of secondary instruction, the provisions of this law are equally applicable to all that concerns the more advanced instruction in modern languages, and in mathematical and physical science.

In order to be admitted for examination for the purpose of obtaining a certificate of capacity in one or more of these subjects, the attainment of 18 years at least is required. A single payment of five florins shall be made for the certificate.

ART. 73. This law shall come into operation on the 1st of January, 1858.

Saving the provisions of (Art. 70,) all existing general provincial and local regulations concerning primary instruction will then be abolished; the provincial committees of education, local committees for school affairs, and committees for local superintendence of schools, dissolved; the district school inspectors dismissed; and the system of superintendence of schools, according to the present law, substituted for them.

REMARKS ON THE SCHOOL LEGISLATION OF 1857.

BY AN ENGLISH SCHOOL INSPECTOR.

MR. ARNOLD, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, and deputed, by the Royal Commissioners on the state of Popular Education in England, to examine into and report on the state of Popular Education in France, Switzerland and Holland in 1859, makes the following remarks on the Law of 1857:

What could have been the inducement to the Dutch Government to alter a legislation which worked so well? Why, when the law of 1806 was there, should the Chambers have been called upon to vote the law of 1857? I proceed to reply very briefly to these questions.

In the first place, in 1848, Holland had the disease from which it seems that, since the French Revolution, no constitutional state on the Continent can escape;—it wrote down its constitution. The Constitution of 1848 proclaimed liberty of instruction. The legislation of 1806 had fettered this liberty, by requiring the private teacher to obtain a special authorization before he might open school. It was necessary to bring school-legislation on this point into harmony with the new Constitution.

It was asserted, too, that the body of schoolmasters, satisfactory as was their position in general, were yet left too dependent on the will of the local municipality for the amount of their salaries; that there were many cases in which these were quite insufficient; and that it was desirable to establish by law a rate of salary below which local parsimony might not descend.

It was said, also, that the legislation of 1806 had not determined with sufficient strictness the obligation of communes to provide schools, and that in some quarters popular education was in consequence suffering. Returns were quoted to show that the attendance of children in the Dutch schools, satisfactory as compared with that which many countries could boast, was yet unsatisfactory as compared with that which Holland could boast formerly. In 1835 the proportion of the inhabitants of Holland in school was 1 to 8·3; in 1848, when it reached its highest point, it was 1 to 7·78; but in January, 1854, it had fallen to 1 to 9·35, and in July of the same year yet lower, to 1 to 9·83. The number of children attending no school, estimated at but 21,000 for 1852, was estimated at 38,000 for 1855. For Holland, this was a suffering state of popular education. Many desired to try whether legislation could not amend it.

Yet, after all, these were light grievances to allege against a law which had in general worked admirably. The special authorization required for private teachers had never in Holland been felt as a serious grievance, because in Holland it was almost always accorded or refused with fairness. The Dutch school-master had, in general, reason rather for satisfaction than for complaint. The diffusion of instruction among the Dutch people was such as might inspire their rulers with thankfulness rather than disquietude.

Another, a graver embarrassment, placed the legislation of 1806 in question. It arose out of those very provisions of the law which had been supposed essentially to characterize it, and which observers had the most applauded. It arose out of the imposition on the schools of a non-denominational character.

M. Cousin's convictions led him to disapprove an instruction for the people which was either purely secular or not directly and dogmatically religious; but he had not been able to refuse his testimony to the success of the non-dogmatic

instruction of the primary schools of Holland. He had seen, he declared, in the great schools of Amsterdam, of Rotterdam, of the Hague, Jews, Catholics and Protestants, seated side by side on the same benches, troubled by no religious animosity, receiving harmoniously a common instruction. But what struck him most was, that this instruction seemed to him "penetrated with the spirit of Christianity, though not with the spirit of sect;" that it formed men "sincerely religious and in general moral."

This was high praise from such a quarter, and it tended to dissipate the objections most formidable to such a school system as the Dutch. If, in fact, religious training did not suffer in neutral or non-denominational schools, these schools were inevitably to be preferred to all others; for the advantages of their neutrality no one disputes, and the one supposed disadvantage of their neutrality was shown not to exist. Precisely on this plea that, while the Dutch schools were unsectarian, they were yet truly Christian, the venerable M. Van den Ende upheld the system which he had founded. "Yes," he said to M. Cousin in 1836, "primary schools ought to be Christian, but neither Protestant nor Catholic. They ought to belong to no one communion in particular, and to teach no positive dogma. Yes, you are right; the school ought to be Christian, the school must be Christian. Toleration is not indifference. I can not approve that the schoolmaster should give any dogmatic religious instruction; such instruction should be given by the ministers of the different denominations, and out of school. I allow that the schoolmaster may in some cases have the catechism said; but even this is not without its inconveniences. Remember that you are in Holland, where the Christian spirit is very widely spread among the people."

It escaped, I think, M. Van den Ende, it escaped, I think, M. Cousin, that it would have been more strictly to the purpose to say:—"You are in Holland, where the Protestant spirit is very widely spread among the people." I think it escaped them, that the religious teaching of the Dutch public schools, a sincere, a substantial religious teaching no doubt, was at the same time substantially a Protestant teaching. I think it escaped them, that this Protestant teaching passed without raising difficulties in the Dutch schools, because the religious spirit of the Dutch people in general was a decidedly Protestant spirit, which the Protestant teaching of the public schools of course did not offend. But, in that case, the triumph of the neutral school in Holland was more apparent than real. The Dutch system had not, in that case, yet solved the difficult problem of uniting in a religious instruction genuine Christian teaching with absolute exclusion of dogma.

Events have singularly proved this. In 1848 all religious denominations in Holland were placed by law on a perfect equality. Protestantism lost its exclusive predominance. What was the first step taken by the Catholics in the assertion of their equal rights? It was to claim an exact and literal observance of the law of 1806. "The word *Christian* in the law of 1806," said the Catholics, "had become in practice merely another word for *Protestant*; if possible, banish the word *Christian* altogether, for of that word, in a neutral school, partisans are sure to take sectarian advantage; but, even if the word remains, the law clearly proscribes all dogmatic teaching, clearly limits the Christianity to be taught to morality only; execute the law; forbid the teacher to give any dogmatic religious instruction whatever; banish from the school the Bible, which contains dogma as well as moral precepts." The law was clearly on the side of the Catholics, and they succeeded in having it strictly put in force. M. Van den Ende's own words to M. Cousin, which I have quoted above, show that, probably, the Catholics had ground for complaint, show that, probably, the teacher sometimes actually broke the law by taking part in teaching dogmatic formularies. But even though formularies be excluded, it is hard not to impress a Protestant or Catholic stamp on the religious instruction of a school, if a school admits any religious instruction at all.

No sooner was the law of 1806 put strictly in force, no sooner did the public schools of Holland become really non-denominational, than the high Protestants began to cry out against them. They discovered that the law of 1806 was vicious in principle. They discovered that the public schools, which this law had founded, were "godless schools," were "centers of irreligion and immorality."

The dissatisfaction of this formidable party was the real cause which made the revision of the law of 1806 inevitable. Either the government, while introducing into the school-law of Holland the lesser modifications necessitated by the Constitution of 1848 or by other causes, must obtain from the Chambers a fresh sanction for the important principle of the neutral school, or this principle must be publicly renounced by it. The law of 1857 raised the question.

Never, perhaps, has it been better discussed than in the debates which followed the introduction of that law into the Dutch Chambers. It does honor to Holland that she should have for her representatives men capable of debating this grave question of religious education so admirably. I greatly doubt whether any other parliamentary assembly in the world could have displayed, in treating it, so much knowledge, so much intelligence, so much moderation. These debates prove the truth of what I have before said, that in the upper classes of no country is the education for public affairs so serious or so universal as in Holland; they prove, too, that nowhere does the best thought and information of these classes so well succeed in finding its way into the legislature. A most interesting account* of the discussion has been published in the French language, by M. de Laveleye, a Belgian, and a warm partisan of the cause of neutral schools; I strongly recommend the study of his book to all who desire to see the question of religious education fully debated. My space permits me here only to indicate, with the utmost brevity, the parties on each side in this discussion in the Dutch Chambers, and its issue.

Against the neutral school the high Protestant party stood alone; but its strength, though unaided, was great. This party is at the same time the great conservative party of Holland; it was strong by its wealth, by its respectability, by its long preponderance, by the avowed favor of the King. It was strongest of all, perhaps, by the character of its leader, M. Groen van Prinsterer, a man of deep religious convictions, of fervent eloquence, and of pure and noble character. As a pamphleteer and as an orator, M. Groen van Prinsterer attacked the neutral school with equal power. "No education without religion!" he exclaimed, "and no religion except in connection with some actual religious communion! else you fall into a vague deism, which is but the first step toward atheism and immorality."

If the opponents of the non-denominational school were one, its supporters were many. First of all stood the Roman Catholics; insisting, as in States where they are not in power they always insist, that the State which can not be of their own religion, shall be of no religion at all; that it shall be perfectly neutral between the various sects; that no other sect, at any rate, shall have the benefit of that State-connection which here it can not itself obtain, but which, when it can obtain it, it has never refused. Next came the Jews and dissenters; accustomed to use the public schools, desiring to make them even more neutral rather than less neutral; apprehensive that of public schools, allotted separately to denominations, their own share might be small. Next came an important section of the Protestant party, the Protestants of the New School, as they are called, who have of late years made much progress, and whose stronghold is in the University of Groningen; who take their theology from the German rationalists, and, while they declare themselves sincerely Christian, incline, in their own words, "to consider Christianity rather by its moral side and its civilizing effect, than by its dogmatic side and its regenerating effect." For these persons, the general character of the religious teaching of the Dutch schools under the law of 1806, the "Christianity common to all sects" taught in them, was precisely what they desired. Finally, the neutral schools were upheld by the whole liberal party, bent in Holland, as elsewhere, to apply, on every possible occasion, their favorite principle of the radical separation of Church and State; bent to exclude religion altogether from schools which belong to the State, because with religion, they said, the State ought to have no concern whatever.

The party which really triumphed was that of the Protestants of the New School. They owed this triumph less to their own numbers and ability, than to the conformity of their views with the language of the legislation of 1806.

* *Débat sur l'Enseignement primaire dans les Chambres Hollandaises*, par Emile de Laveleye; Gand, 1858.

That legislation was dear, and justly dear, to the people of Holland; a school-system had grown up under it of which they might well be proud; they had not generally experienced any serious inconvenience from it. The new law, therefore, while it forbade, more distinctly than the old law, the schoolmaster to take part in dogmatic religious teaching, while it expressly abandoned religious instruction to the ministers of the different religious communions, while it abstained from proclaiming, like the old law, a desire that the dogmatic religious teaching of the young, though not given in the public school, might yet not be neglected,—nevertheless still used, like the old law, the word *Christian*. It still declared that the object of primary education was "to develop the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all *Christian* and social virtues." This retention of the word *Christian* gave great offense to many members of the majority. It gave offense to the Liberals, because, they said, this word was "in evident opposition with the purely lay character of the State; for the State, as such, has no religion." Yet the Liberals accepted the new law as a compromise, and because, after all, it still repelled the introduction of the denominational school. But the Catholics were less pliant. To the last they insisted on excluding the word *Christian*, because in practice, they said, this word signified *Protestant*; and most of them voted against the law, because this word was retained. The law passed, however, and by a large majority.

Popular instruction in Holland is, therefore, still *Christian*. But it is *Christian* in a sense so large, so wide, from which everything distinctive and dogmatic is so rigorously excluded, that it might as well, perhaps, have rested satisfied with calling itself moral. Those who gave it the name of *Christian* were careful to announce that by *Christianity* they meant "all those ideas which purify the soul by elevating it, and which prepare the union of citizens in a common sentiment of mutual good will;" not "those theological subtleties which stifle the natural affections, and perpetuate divisions among members of one commonwealth." They announced that the *Christianity* of the law and of the State was "a social or lay *Christianity*, gradually transforming society after the model of ideal justice;" not "a dogmatic *Christianity*, the affair of the individual and the Church." They announced that this *Christianity* did not even exclude the Jew; for "the Jew himself will admit that the virtues enjoined by the Old Testament are not in opposition with the word of Christ considered as a sage and a philosopher." The Jews, on their part, announced that this *Christianity* they accepted. "In a moral point of view," said M. Godefroi, a Jew deputy from Amsterdam, "I believe and hope that there is no member of this Chamber, be he who he may, who is not a *Christian*. The word *Christian*, in this sense, I can accept with a safe conscience."

The Jews might be satisfied, but the orthodox Protestants were not. In a speech of remarkable energy, and which produced a deep impression upon the country, M. Groen van Prinsterer made a final effort against the new law. "If this law passes," he cried, "*Christianity* itself is henceforth only a sect, and in the sphere of government its name must never more be pronounced. We shall have not only the *ne plus ultra* of the separation of Church and State, but we shall have the separation of State and religion." "But the Constitution," retorted M. Groen's adversaries, "but the Constitution is on our side!" "If the Constitution," replied M. Groen, "makes the irreligious school a necessity, revise the Constitution!" When the law passed, he resigned his seat in the Chamber and retired into private life.

It is too soon yet to pronounce on the working of the law of 1857, for it has been in operation but two years. There seems at first sight no reason why the religious instruction of the Dutch schools should not follow the same course under the law of 1857 as under the law of 1806, for both laws regulate this instruction in nearly the same words. But the question of distinctive religious teaching has been raised; the strict execution of the letter of the law has been enforced; the orthodox Protestants have been made to see that, under that law, a religious instruction, such as they wished, could be given only whilst their adversaries slumbered—could be withheld the moment their adversaries awoke. The able and experienced inspector who conducted me round the schools of Utrecht, M. van Hooijtema, in pointing out to me a private elementary school, remarked that such schools had a much greater importance in Holland now

than a few years ago. I asked him the reason of this; he replied that in the large towns, at any rate, there was an increasing dissatisfaction with the inadequate religious instruction of the public schools, an increasing demand for schools where a real definite religious instruction was given. He added that this was a grave state of things; that in his opinion it was very undesirable that the schools of the State, with their superior means of efficiency, should not retain the education of the people;* that Government would probably be driven to do something in order to try to remove the present objections to them.

In fact, it may perhaps be doubted, whether any body of public schools anywhere exists, satisfying at the same time the demands of parents for their children's genuine moral and religious training, and the demands of the partisans of a strict religious neutrality. Secular schools exist, but these do not satisfy the great majority of parents. Schools professing neutral religious teaching exist, but these do not satisfy rigid neutrals. They may profess to give "an instruction penetrated with Christianity, yet without any mixture of Christian dogma,"† but they have not yet succeeded in giving it. In America the prevalent religious tone of the country is the religious tone of Protestant Dissent, and this, secular as the American school-system may profess itself, becomes the religious tone of the public education of the country, without violence, without opposition. In England, the religious tone of the schools of the British and Foreign School Society is undoubtedly also the religious tone of Protestant Dissent; but in England Protestant Dissent is not all-pervading and supreme. The British schools, therefore, have to try to neutralize their religious tone, so far as they can do this without impairing its religious sincerity; and, precisely because they have to try to do this, precisely because they have to attempt this impossible feat, these excellent schools are not thoroughly succeeding. While they are too biblical for the secularist, they are yet far too latitudinarian for the orthodox. And not the orthodox only, but the great majority of mankind—the undevout, the indifferent, the sceptical—have a deep-seated feeling that religion ought to be blended with the instruction of their children, even though it is never blended with their own lives. They have a feeling equally deep-seated, that no religion has ever yet been impressively and effectively conveyed to ordinary minds except under the conditions of a dogmatic shape and positive formularies.

The State must not forget this in legislating for public education; if it does, it must expect its legislation to be a failure. The power which has to govern men, must not omit to take account of one of the most powerful motors of men's nature, their religious feeling. It is in vain to tell the State that it is of no religion; it is more true to say that the State is of the religion of all its citizens, without the fanaticism of any. It is most of the religion of the majority, in the sense that it justly establishes this the most widely. It deals with all, indeed, as an authority, not as a partisan; it deals with all lesser bodies, contained in itself, as possessing a higher reason than any one of them, (for if it has not this, what right has it to govern?) it allows no one religious body to persecute another; it allows none to be irrational at the public expense; it even reserves to itself the right of judging what religious differences are vital and important, and demand a separate establishment;—but it does not attempt to exclude religion from a sphere which naturally belongs to it; it does not command religion to forego, before it may enter this sphere, the modes of operation which are essential to it; it does not attempt to impose on the masses an eclecticism which may be possible for a few superior minds. It avails itself, to supply a regular known demand of common human nature, of a regular known machinery.

It is not, therefore, unreasonable to ask of those "Religions of the Future," which the present day so prodigally announces, that they will equip themselves with a substantial shape, with a worship, a ministry, and a flock, before we legislate for popular education in accordance with their exigencies. But, when

* In Belgium, where the number of children attending some school or other is pretty nearly the same as in Holland, but where, of that number, the proportion attending private, not public schools, is much greater, the instruction is incredibly inferior to that of Holland. See *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire*, (the author of which is himself a Belgian,) p. 7.

† See the speech of the Minister of Justice, M. Van der Brugge, *Débats sur l'Enseignement primaire*, &c., p. 47.

they have done this, their neutralism will be at an end, denominationalism will have made them prisoners; the denominationalism of Groningen or Tübingen, instead of that of Utrecht or Geneva.

The principal change made by the law of 1857 is the establishment of greater liberty of instruction. The certificates of morality and capacity are still demanded of every teacher, public or private; but the special authorization of the municipality, formerly necessary for every private teacher before he could open school, and not granted except with the district-inspector's sanction, is demanded no longer.* This relaxation makes the establishment of private schools more easy. The programme of primary instruction, and that of the certificate-examination of teachers, remain much the same as they were under the law of 1806. Primary instruction, strictly so called, is pronounced by the law of 1857 to comprehend reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of geometry, of Dutch grammar, of geography, of history, of the natural sciences, and singing. This is a much fuller programme than the corresponding programme of France or Belgium. The certificate-examination is proportionately fuller also.

The new law expressly prescribes (Art. 31) that primary schools, in each commune, shall be at the commune's charge. The law of 1806 had contained no positive prescription on this point. The schools are to be in sufficient number, and the States' deputies and the supreme government have the right of judging whether in any commune they are in sufficient number or not, (Art. 17.) School-fees are to be exacted of those who can afford to pay them, but not of "children whose families are receiving public relief, or, though not receiving public relief, are unable to pay for their schooling," (Art. 33.) If the charge of its schools is too heavy for a commune, the province and the State aid it by a grant, of which each contributes half, (Art. 35.) The exact amount of charge to be supported by a commune, before it can receive aid, is not fixed by the Dutch law; neither is a machinery established for compelling the commune and the province to raise the school-funds required of them. In both these respects the French law is superior. But in the weakest point of the French law, in the establishment of a *minimum* for the teachers' salaries, the Dutch law is commendably liberal. The *minimum* of a schoolmaster's fixed salary, placed at £8 a year by the Belgian and by the French law, the Dutch law places at nearly £34, (\$170.) I need not remind the reader that the sum actually received by a schoolmaster in Holland is much greater. An undermaster's salary is fixed at a minimum of 200 florins; one-half of the salary fixed for headmasters.

Under the law of 1857 the public schoolmaster is still appointed by competitive examination. The district-inspector retains his influence over this examination. After it has taken place, he and a select body of the municipality draw up a list of from three to six names, those of the candidates who have acquitted themselves best. From this list the entire body of the communal council makes its selection. The communal council may also dismiss the teacher, but it must first obtain the concurrence of the inspector. If the communal council refuses to pronounce a dismissal which the inspector thinks advisable, the States' deputies of the province may pronounce it upon the representation of this functionary, (Art. 22.)

The law fixes the legal staff of teachers to be allowed to public schools. When the number of scholars exceeds 70, the master is to have the aid of a pupil-teacher, (*kweekeling*, from *kweeten*, to foster;) when it exceeds 100, of an undermaster; when it exceeds 150, of an undermaster and pupil-teacher; for every 50 scholars above this last number he is allowed another pupil-teacher; for every 100 scholars another under undermaster, (Art. 18.) The head-master receives two guineas a year for each pupil-teacher.

The law of 1857, like that of 1806, has abstained from making education compulsory. But it gives legal sanction to a practice already long followed by many municipalities, and which I have noticed above; it enjoins the municipal council to "provide, as far as possible, for the attendance at school of all chil-

* A certificate from the municipality, to the effect that they have seen the private teacher's certificates of morality and capacity, and found them in regular form, is still required. But if the municipality refuse or delay the issue of such certificate, the teacher may appeal to the States' deputies and to the King.

dren whose parents are in the receipt of public relief." Great efforts had been made, in the debates on the clauses of the law, to procure a more decided recognition by the State of the principle of compulsory education. It was proposed at least to make the payment of the school-fee obligatory for each child of school-age, if the Chamber would not go so far as to make his actual attendance at school obligatory. This obligation of payment (*schoolgeld-pligtigheid*) had already, it was said, been enforced by the governments of three provinces, Groningen, Drenthe and Overijssel, with excellent effect.* The usual arguments for compulsory education were adduced—that other countries had successfully established it—that ignorance was making rapid strides for want of it—that in China, where it reigns, all the children can read and write. It was replied that compulsory education was altogether against the habits of the Dutch people. Even in the mitigated form of the *schoolgeld-pligtigheid*, a large majority of the Chamber refused to sanction it.

The new legislation organized inspection somewhat differently from the law of 1806. It retained the local school-commissions and the district-inspectors; but at the head of the inspection of each district it placed a salaried provincial inspector, (Art. 28.) It directed that these provincial inspectors should be assembled, once a year, under the presidency of the Minister for the Home Department, to deliberate on the general interests of primary instruction. The Minister for the Home Department, assisted by a Referendary, is the supreme authority for the government of education. Between the provincial inspectors and the Minister, the law of 1857 has omitted to place inspectors-general. M. de Laveleye, in general the warm admirer of the Dutch school-legislation, considers this omission most unfortunate.

The 16th article of the law declares that children are to be admitted into the communal school without distinction of creed. For the much-debated 23d article, the wording finally adopted was as follows:—

"Primary instruction, while it imparts the information necessary, is to tend to develop the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all Christian and social virtues.

"The teacher shall abstain from teaching, doing, or permitting anything contrary to the respect due to the convictions of dissenters.

"Religious instruction is left to the different religious communions. The school-room may be put at their disposal for that purpose, for the benefit of children attending the school, out of school-hours."

STATISTICS OF SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION IN 1859.

Holland has (January, 1858) a population of 3,298,137 inhabitants. For her eleven provinces, she has 11 provincial inspectors and 92 district inspectors. In 1857, her public primary schools were 2,478 in number, with a staff of 2,409 principal masters, 1,587 undermasters, 642 pupil-teachers, 134 schoolmistresses and assistants. In the day and evening schools there were, on the 15th of January, 322,767 scholars. Of these schools 197 were, in 1857, inspected three times; 618, twice; 1,053, once. In 817 of them the instruction is reported as very good; in 1,236 as good; as middling in 367; in 55 as bad. There were, besides, 944 private schools, giving instruction to 83,562 scholars. There were 784 infant schools, receiving 49,873 young children. Boarding-schools, Sunday-schools and work-schools, with the pupils attending them, are not included in the totals above given.

The proportion of scholars to the population, not yet so satisfactory as in 1848, was nevertheless, in 1857, more satisfactory than in 1854; in January of the latter year, but 1 in every 9·35 inhabitants was in school; in the same month of 1857, 1 in every 8·11 inhabitants. But, in truth, the suffering state of popular education in Holland would be a flourishing state in most other countries. In the debates of 1857, one of the speakers, who complained that popular education in Holland was going back, cited, in proof of the justice of

* In Groningen the number of children attending school had arisen from 20,000 to 30,000, in consequence of the adoption in 1830, by the provincial government, of a regulation requiring the payment of the school-fee for every child of from 5 to 12 years of age, whether he attended school or not. See *Débat sur l'Enseignement primaire*, p. 57.

his complaint, returns showing the state of instruction of the conscripts of South Holland in 1856. In this least favored province, out of 6,086 young men drawn for the army, 669 could not read or write. Fortunate country, where such an extent of ignorance is matter of complaint! In the neighboring country of Belgium, in the same year, out of 6,617 conscripts in the province of Brabant, 2,254 could not read or write; out of 5,910 conscripts in the province of West Flanders, 2,088 were in the same condition; out of 7,192 in East Flanders, 3,153. And, while in East Flanders but 1,820 conscripts out of 7,192 could read, write and cipher correctly, in South Holland, in the worst educated of the Dutch provinces, no less than 5,268 out of 6,086 possessed this degree of acquirement.*

Such, in Holland, is the present excellent situation of primary instruction. In Prussia it may be even somewhat more widely diffused; but nowhere, probably, has it such thorough soundness and solidity. It is impossible to regard it without admiration.

NOTE ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The law of 1857 is to be completed by regulations reorganizing the normal schools of Holland; but these regulations have not yet appeared. Meanwhile the normal school of Haarlem is provisionally continued. It contained, when I visited it, 25 students. They are not boarded in the institution, but lodge in the town; this arrangement is undoubtedly faulty, and the new regulations will change it. The institution is entirely at the charge of the State, which allows 200 florins a-year for the maintenance of each student in it. Admission is eagerly sought for. The course lasts four years. The students attend lectures from 8 to 9 in the morning, and from 5½ to 7½ in the evening; the first-year students attend lectures in the afternoon also. But the mornings of all the students, the mornings and afternoons of students of the second, third and fourth year, are spent in teaching in the different schools of Haarlem. They are practiced in schools of all kinds; schools for the poor, schools for the middle class; schools (without Greek and Latin) for the rich. The children of the latter, at an age when in England they would probably be still at home, almost universally attend school in Holland. A school for the richer class of children is attached to the normal school, and belongs to the present director, M. Geerlitz. The students commence in the poor schools, and go gradually upwards, finishing their practice in schools for the richer class, where the attainment required in the teacher is, of course, more considerable than in the others. In Holland this mode of training the future teacher, so as to fit him for any kind of primary school, is found convenient; the superior address and acquirement of the best Dutch teachers is probably to be attributed to it. It is possible that in other countries it might be found to have disadvantages. But, at any rate, the large part assigned in the Dutch system of training to the actual practice of teaching, is excellent. Our normal school authorities would do well to meditate on this great feature of the Haarlem course.

* *Débat sur l'Enseignement primaire*, p. 59.

V. PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN PENNSYLVANIA.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

THE Normal School in Pennsylvania is the growth of many years, and of various suggestions and plans. The first attempt was an offshoot from the Normal and Model school of the British and Foreign School Society in London—the Model School in Chester Street, Philadelphia, having been established "in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools (of Philadelphia) and for schools in other parts of the State," under the direction and on the system of Joseph Lancaster, who was fresh from the mother school of the system in London. This Model School was in 1848 enlarged into a Normal School for female teachers for the Public Schools of the city.

In 1825, Walter R. Johnson, a native of Massachusetts, and at that date Principal of the Academy at Germantown, published a pamphlet of twenty-eight pages, entitled "*Observations on the improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States*," in which he urges the establishment of "Schools for Teachers" as the most direct way of improving the quality of American Education. The outline of the organization and studies of such an institution for Pennsylvania is given.* Mr. Johnson urged the same views and plans on the attention of a committee of the Legislature, in 1833.

In 1833, Rev. Dr. George Junkin, President of the Lafayette College, at Easton, in a letter to Mr. Samuel Breck, Chairman of the Joint Committee on Education of the Legislature, after discussing the project of a Manual Labor School at Harrisburg for pupils who proposed to become teachers—also of similar schools, without manual labor, as Normal Schools, in different parts of the State—recommends the engrafting on existing colleges of a course of instruction for teachers, with opportunities of daily observation and practice in a common school, composed of the children of the neighborhood. The same plan, substantially, was suggested by Rev. Chauncey Colton, President of the Bristol College, in a letter of the same date addressed to the same Committee.

In 1834, Samuel Breck, as Chairman of a Joint Committee of the two houses of the Legislature, urges the establishment in existing colleges and academies of a "Teachers' Course, and Model Schools," for the professional education of several hundred teachers each year. The Bill re-

* Bernard's "*American Journal of Education*," Vol. V., p. 790.

ported by the Committee provides for an appropriation of \$8,000 a year for this purpose, under the direction of the Superintendent of Schools.*

In October, 1836, at a public meeting held in Philadelphia, called "to consider the condition and improvement of institutions of public instruction in Pennsylvania," Rev. Dr. Ludlow, Provost of the University of Pennsylvania, in the chair, the Rev. Gilbert Morgan, late President of the Western University, at Pittsburg, submitted a report in which a "*Plan for a Teachers' Seminary and for a Board of Public Instruction*" was fully and ably discussed. This report was printed and widely circulated through the State, besides being read to large public meetings called in Harrisburg, Pittsburg, and other places in Pennsylvania. The plan for a Seminary contemplated an independent institution, a faculty of five professors and teachers, a three years' course of study, with opportunities of practice in a large common school attached. The plan is avowedly copied, with modifications from the Teachers' Seminaries of Prussia and France, and the Seminary of Mr. Hall, at Andover, Mass.

In 1836, Thomas M. Burrowes, Secretary of State, and ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, in a report dated February 19th, urges upon the Legislature an appropriation of \$10,000 for "the establishment of two institutions, one in each end of the State, under the care of two of the colleges now in operation, for the preparation of common school teachers." In a subsequent report, in 1837, Mr. Burrowes renews the recommendation, with a suggestion that "the institutions should not be attached to any of the colleges, but be placed under competent and disinterested supervision, and be kept apart from any other object or profession." In 1838, the Superintendent returns to the subject—"the want of more and better teachers is by far the greatest difficulty of the system. Without them it can not long retain the degree of public favor now possessed; and with them its capacity for usefulness will only be limited by the necessities of the rising generation." To supply this want, "he has come deliberately and unhesitatingly to the conclusion that the best mode is the establishment of separate Free State Institutions for the instruction of teachers"—abandoning the plan of Academic and Collegiate Departments for this purpose, as altogether inadequate. The separate institutions he denominates Practical Institutes, in which the Model Schools were to be composed of the most promising pupils admitted free and by merit from all parts of the State. For the establishment of two such Institutions he recommends an appropriation of \$25,000. In the same year the Legislature authorized the printing of five thousand copies of Prof. Stowe's Report on Elementary Education in Prussia.

In 1838, the Trustees of Lafayette College, at Easton, under the lead of the President, Dr. Junkin, established a Model School for candidate

* "*Report of Joint Committee, &c.*," Harrisburg, 1834. 52 pages. To this report is appended letters from Pres. Junkin, Pres. Colton, Hon. A. C. Flagg and Hon. J. A. Dix, of New York, Rev. B. O. Peers, of Kentucky, E. Vaux and W. R. Johnson, of Philadelphia, and Hon. S. P. Boies, of Connecticut. Rev. Mr. Peers, of Kentucky, suggested the holding of a National Convention on the subject.

teachers, and erected a building for its accommodation. Dr. Junkin delivered an address on the 4th of July (which is published in the "Educator" of that year) "in commemoration of the founding of the first Model School for the training of Primary School Teachers in Pennsylvania, and the first, as believed, in the United States, in connection with a Collegiate Institution."

In April, 1838, Pres. Junkin, Prof. Robert Cunningham,* and Prof. F. Schmidt, of Lafayette College, commenced the publication of the "Educator," issued every second week (alternating with a German paper, containing nearly the same matter,) and "devoted to the development of education in the largest sense—the drawing out and training the powers of body, mind, and heart to habits of systematic, upright and profitable action—but mainly to the interests of Common Schools." From the year 1838, and until August, 1839, the "Educator" labored faithfully and ably for the professional training of teachers—publishing in its columns many articles on the subject by its own editors, and republishing the opinions and arguments of others—Channing, Stowe, Mann, Barnard, A. H. Everett, &c., citing the experience of France, Prussia, and Switzerland on the subject. But its expenses were not sustained by an adequate subscription list, and the attempt to establish a Normal Class with a Model School in connection with Lafayette College having failed, Prof. Cunningham returned to Scotland to become Principal of the Normal Seminary of Glasgow, and the publication of the "Educator" was discontinued.

In 1839, Prof. Cunningham published a lecture read by him before the American Lyceum in 1838, on "*The principles of the Prussian system of Education applicable to the United States*," in which he developed at some length the plan of a Normal Seminary, after the model of those of Prussia and France, but modified to suit the habits of our people. The same views were presented by him in an address delivered at Belvidere, New Jersey, in November, 1838, but published and circulated in Pennsylvania, in 1839.

In 1839, Alexander Dallas Bache, President of the Girard College of Orphans, made a report of his observations and study of the schools and school systems of the principal countries of Europe in the years 1836-7-8, which was published under the title of "*Report on Education in Europe*," and which was read with great avidity by the principal educators of this country. In this document Pres. Bache devotes a chapter to the description of "Seminaries for the preparation of Teachers for Primary Schools" in Prussia, Holland, France, and Switzerland.

In 1840, Francis R. Shunk, ex-officio Superintendent of Common Schools, in his report to the Legislature, urges the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries "for supplying all our primary schools with an

* Prof. Cunningham was trained in the Parochial Schools and Universities of Scotland, and after serving as head master of George Watson's Hospital, established the High Street Institution, at Edinburgh, in which he aimed to incorporate the Common Real School into the ordinary Classical School of Scotland. This plan is described by Prof. Bache in his Report on Education in Europe.

adequate number of good teachers." And for this purpose he recommended that the State be divided into a convenient number of Normal School districts, not more than five, and that three commissioners be appointed from each district to collect information for organizing, governing, and conducting these seminaries. In the same year the Superintendent requested Prof. Lemuel Stevens, who was about to visit Europe, to communicate to him the results of his observations and inquiries concerning Common Schools, and the education of teachers for this class of Schools. In 1848, Prof. Stevens addressed a letter to the Superintendent, which is published in the report of Superintendent Charles McClure for 1844, in which he gives his views on the Normal Schools of Germany, and the principles to be regarded in the establishment of this class of institutions in this country, and especially in Pennsylvania. He advises the Superintendent to guard against an imperfect organization, and inadequate supply of teaching power in these Seminaries. "Every thing depends on making them separate and independent establishments with a careful provision for a thorough theoretical and practical preparation for all the duties of the Common School." Mr. McClure indorses the views of his predecessors on the necessity of making some provision for the education of teachers.

In 1849, Townsend Haines, Superintendent of Common Schools, urges the establishment of Normal Schools in each county, and a central institution of the same character for the whole State, and open only to the graduates of the county institutions.

In 1850, A. L. Russell, in his report as Superintendent, recommends a Seminary for teachers in each congressional district with Model Schools attached, under the supervision of county Superintendents. In 1851, he renews the suggestion, with the addition of one State institution for special instruction in the theory and practice of agriculture, and for general instruction in all the branches of a High School course; three hundred pupils to be taught and supported at the expense of the State, and bound to devote a certain period afterwards to the business of teaching in the Common Schools.

In 1853, F. W. Hughes, Superintendent, while acknowledging the force of the argument in favor of independent and continuous Normal Schools, recommends a modification of the plan, by opening courses of instruction for periods of three or four months of the year to teachers actually engaged in the schools, to attend during their vacations.

In 1854 and 1855, C. A. Black, Superintendent, "renews the recommendation so often made by his predecessors, for the establishment of schools for the perpetual training of teachers."

In 1856, Andrew G. Curtin, Superintendent, remarks "that the period has now arrived for legislative action on behalf of Normal Schools. They should embrace two departments—one for the improvement of the present teachers, and the other a regular Normal Department. By opening the first, the present generation of teachers may be vastly improved

in professional skill and efficiency; and the second will provide for a succession of teachers to meet the growing demands of the age and country."

In 1857, the same Superintendent returned to the subject with greater urgency, and the Legislature on the 20th of May, 1857, embodied his suggestions in an Act, drawn up by Thomas H. Burrowes, entitled "*An Act to provide for the due training of Teachers for the Common Schools.*"

This act inaugurates a large system of Normal Schools, and provides for a series of teachers' certificates which, if properly administered, will come nearer our ideal of this class of institutions than if organized exclusively under State control and supported by State funds. It aims to enlist and reward individual and associated effort and liberality, and brings to the test of State examination the results of such professional instruction as shall be imparted in these schools. It recognizes and gives currency to professional attainments and skill, no matter where educated and trained.

The Act of 1857 provides for the establishment of at least twelve Normal Schools, by dividing the State into twelve districts of nearly equal population and similar characteristics of occupation and language, each district to have not more than one school under the Act. The details for carrying it into effect will be best understood in the account which we propose to give of one or more of the institutes already established in pursuance of its provisions.

The essential requisites for securing professional training, and uniformity of aims and methods in obtaining the same are—1. Each school must have an area of not less than ten acres of ground, for the buildings, gardens, gymnastic and other physical exercises, &c. 2. One or more buildings, sufficient to furnish lodging, and refectory, class rooms, hall, library, and cabinets, for at least three hundred students. The hall must accommodate at least one thousand adults, and all the buildings must be arranged and constructed, as to light, heat, and ventilation, so as to secure the health and comfort of the occupants. 3. At least six Professors, of liberal education and known ability in their respective departments, viz.: Orthography, Reading, and Elocution—Penmanship, Drawing, and Book-keeping—Arithmetic and the higher Mathematics—Geography and History—the Grammar and Literature of the English language—the Theory and Practice of Teaching, and such other instructors in the Natural, Moral and Mental Sciences, and in Languages, as the grade and attendance may require. 4. One or more Model and Practicing Schools in connection with the Normal School. 5. Uniform conditions of admissions, and course of instruction, approved by a majority of the Principals of the several schools each year, at a meeting of which all shall be notified. 6. Examinations for graduation to be conducted and certificates of proficiency in the studies specified to be issued to graduates, by a Board of not less than three Principals, designated for this purpose by the State Superintendent of Common Schools. 7. State

diplomas, good all over the State can be granted by the Board of Principals only to those who have had at least two full annual terms of actual teaching after regular graduation, and certificates of good moral character and success signed by the Directors of the schools where employed, and countersigned by the County Superintendent in which the schools are located. 8. Examinations in higher branches than these specified in a first certificate can be asked, and the proficiency, if shown, can be certified by the Board of Principals. 9. Each Common School district (each town and city) within a Normal district can maintain one pupil, selected by open competitive examination, who shall manifest a desire and capacity for the profession of teaching. 10. The Act makes all necessary powers for the full execution of its various provisions, and for obtaining information respecting the condition and operations of the schools.

Under this Act three Normal Schools have gone into operation, viz.: One at Millersville, in the second district, with grounds, buildings, and apparatus, which cost up to 1863, \$62,000; one at Edenboro, in the twelfth district, with an outfit of buildings, &c., which cost \$28,000; and a third at Mansfield, in the fifth district, with buildings, &c., provided at an expense of \$24,000. Each of these schools has received \$10,000 from the State. The three had a total attendance in 1864 of over 800 pupils.

Among the direct and efficient agencies in the development of the professional training and improvement of teachers in Pennsylvania should be noticed the holding of Teachers' Institutes and the establishment of associations, town, county, and State-wise, for educational purposes—the monthly publication of the "*Pennsylvania School Journal*," by Hon. Thomas H. Burrowes, since July, 1852, each number crowded with valuable statistics, documents, discussions, and addresses relative to education—and the institution of the office of County Superintendent, in 1853. With this new administrative element acting in every district, and on almost every teacher and school, stimulating and directing individuals and associations, parents, committees, teachers, children, and the public generally, improvements could not fail to spring up in all directions. In a future number we hope to give an account of one or more of the State Normal Schools, and of the proceedings of the State Teachers' Association, with biographical sketches of several of the prominent teachers and educators of Pennsylvania.

VI. NORMAL SCHOOL

FOR

FEMALE TEACHERS IN THE CITY OF PHILADELPHIA.

In the Act "to provide for the education of children at the public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia," passed in 1818, it was made the duty of the Controllers, who were intrusted with the administration of the schools, "to establish a Model School, in order to qualify teachers for the sectional schools, and for schools in other parts of the state." One of the public schools, located in Chester street, was accordingly organized as a Model School, under the direction of Joseph Lancaster, whose system of school organization and instruction was introduced. This school was used to some extent, as a pattern after which to conduct the other schools, and as a school of practice to train the teachers, and to some extent the monitors of the other schools, up to 1836, when the system of Lancaster was modified so far as to substitute an older class of females, graduates of the school, as assistants, in the places of the monitors selected from the pupils themselves. From this date the school in Chester street did not differ materially from any other school of the same grade until 1848, when, on the solicitation of the present accomplished and devoted Principal, and the recommendation of a committee of the Controllers, it was re-organized as a Normal School, according to the present idea of such an institution.

The Normal School was opened on the 13th of January, 1848, by an Address from James J. Barclay, Esq., in which he gave a brief history of the public schools of Philadelphia, and of this new agency in the system, "which contemplates the thorough training of the female teachers in those branches of a good English education, and in such practical exercises, as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best mode of imparting knowledge, and of instructing children in their studies, establish uniformity in teaching, prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time, with all their sad consequences to teachers and pupils." In reference to this last point, the Principal, in his Report for 1850, observes:

"How wide the difference, in point of usefulness as well as happiness, between the teacher trained to a proper realization of her duty as an educator, conversant with the true principles of her art, with ability to apply them, and one with just knowledge sufficient to pass an examination and secure a situation; discovering, when too late, her deficiency, confined from day to day to the same round of unsuccessful exertion, discouraged by the consciousness of her incompetency, and humiliated by the irresistible conviction of her want of integrity, in continuing to occupy a place

for which every day's experience proves her unfit. And, if prompted by a sense of duty to her pupils, she attempts to remove her deficiencies by study, her health yields to her over-taxed strength, and she is compelled to abandon a profession, which, but for the want of proper training before engaging in it, she would have ornamented, and the pursuit of which would have added to her happiness, instead of rendering her miserable."

The following account of the school is gathered from the Reports of the Principal, for 1849 and 1850.

NUMBER OF PUPILS.—The first term of the school was commenced February 1st, 1848, with one hundred and six pupils; since which time there have been admitted one hundred and fifty-five, exclusive of those admitted at the end of the last term; consequently, the whole number who have enjoyed the advantages of the school, is two hundred and sixty-one.

The following statement will exhibit the number belonging to the school at the beginning and end of each term, and also the admissions and withdrawals during the year :

Attending school August 27th, 1849,	143
Discontinued at the close of the term ending February 15th, 1850,	46
Remaining,	97
Admitted at the close of the term,	53
Attending school, February 18th, 1850,	150
Discontinued at the close of the term ending July 26th, 1850,	40
Remaining,	110
Admitted at the close of the term,	40
Attending school, September 2d, 1850,	150
Average number belonging to the school during the year,	135
Average daily attendance,	129

ADMISSION OF PUPILS.—Pupils are admitted twice a year, in February and July. After evidence of sufficient age (15 years) is presented, the whole test of the qualifications of candidates consists in determining their proficiency in the branches prescribed for examination. Previous to the last examination, the candidates were required to answer one set of questions orally, and one in writing; the oral examination being a guide in determining whether the written answers were given by the candidate herself, or through the aid of some one sitting near her; it being impracticable always to arrange them so as to prevent communication. The general correspondence between the results of the oral and written examination, proved the double examination to be unnecessary. Acting upon this conclusion, at the end of the last term, the examination in orthography, definition of words, English grammar, history of the United States, geography and arithmetic, was conducted entirely in writing.

The method of conducting the examinations, as modified, by omitting the oral part, is as follows:

Questions upon each subject are prepared by the teachers of the respective branches, and submitted to the Principal, from which he selects a sufficient number, to be used in conducting the examination.

To prevent any improper influence that might result from a knowledge of the names of the candidates, a ticket having a number upon it, is given to each; by which number the applicant is known during the examina-

sion; her name not being communicated, until after the decision is made as to her admission.

In determining the candidate's average of scholarship in any particular branch, the whole number of facts embraced in the answers to the questions is used as a denominator, and the number answered correctly as a numerator; and the part of 10 expressed by this fraction gives the average. Thus, if the number of facts in a branch is forty, and the candidate answers thirty-five correctly, the average is obtained by taking $\frac{35}{40}$ of 10, and is expressed by 8.75.

The several averages in each branch, being added together, and divided by the number of subjects of examination, the general average of each candidate is obtained. The lowest average of scholarship which shall entitle the candidate to admission is then determined upon. At the last examination, those having averages above 6 were considered qualified for admission.

In pursuing the plan of examination thus indicated, although some errors may occur, yet they can not be numerous or important. The method leaves no room for partiality, as the averages indicating the scholarship of the candidates must correspond with the written evidences, which are always preserved as vouchers for the accuracy of the results.

Notwithstanding the small number of pupils admitted to the Normal School, compared with the number of applicants, I am not aware of a single instance in which a controller, director, teacher or parent, was not satisfied with the propriety of the rejections, after having examined the written answers of the candidates. And, in every instance, I have found the teachers more surprised at the deficiency exhibited by their pupils, than disappointed that they were not admitted. The number of applicants, admissions and rejections, at each examination, has been as follows:

	Candidates.	Admitted.	Rejected.
At the organization of the school, . . .	156	106	50
Second examination,	56	40	16
Third "	67	35	32
Fourth "	58	27	31
Fifth "	100	53	47
Sixth "	79	40	39
Total,	516	301	215

The number of admissions being but little more than 58 per cent. of the applicants.

The lowest age required of candidates for admission is fifteen years; the average age of pupils admitted has been fifteen years and ten months.

COURSE OF INSTRUCTION. In arranging the plan of instruction, a primary object is to keep the mind of the pupil constantly in contact with subjects immediately or incidentally connected with the great object of her training, and to habituate her to *think* in reference to communicating her thoughts to others. In accomplishing this, the pupil necessarily attains that mental discipline, essential to the formation of habits of exact investigation and quick discrimination, which enable her readily to comprehend and acquire the knowledge of a subject, as well as to illustrate it with perspicuity and clearness.

As the name imports, the Normal School is designed to be a pattern school; the instruction, therefore, in all its departments, from the most elementary to the highest, is adapted, as far as possible, to the methods of teaching which are intended shall be pursued by its pupils.

It is a well-known fact that all children of natural endowments possess an innate desire to *know*; the eager inquisitiveness of children is proverbial. Consequently, the conclusion is self-evident, that the business

of the elementary educator is to encourage this propensity. With this view, the method of instruction pursued in the Normal School excludes altogether routine recitations, with the text book before the teacher as a guide, and the pupils reciting from memory, that which they have learned merely as a lesson. No teacher uses a text book during the recitations; meeting the classes with a full knowledge of the subject, and a perfect acquaintance with the widest range of incidental facts which may present themselves in its discussion, she invites inquiry; and questioning becomes as much the business of the pupils as of the teacher.

At every stage of instruction, it is made a prominent object to imbue pupils with a just sense of the importance of their relations as teachers, and to cause them to realize, that the whole duty of a teacher does not consist in hearing lessons; but that her business is thoroughly to develop all the intellectual and moral powers, and awaken and call forth every talent that may be committed to her care.

Carefully watching the results of the training described, the pleasing conclusion presents itself to my mind, that, as the methods of teaching are good in the opinion of the pupils themselves, and as mechanical modes give place to systems adapted to the development of the faculties, so the interest of the pupils is awakened; illustrating the important fact that, whether in schools or communities, the interest excited in education is always in proportion as the system of instruction is good, and efficiently carried out.

Infuse into the minds of the pupils of our schools that spirit which prompts them to seek knowledge for the sake of itself, and they will reach forward from elements to principles, from lower to higher branches of study, until the mind's own food creates the desire for more. It excites that spirit which constantly cries "give"—the outbursting of that innate principle—the spur to mental acquirement—the *desire to know*.

STUDIES.—At the organization of the school, in the selection of subjects of instruction, next to imparting a thorough knowledge of the branches taught in the public schools, preference was given to those branches best calculated for mental discipline, in connection with their utility in the practical duties of the pupils in after life. All the subjects embraced in the original plan of the school are now taught in the regular exercises of each term. While the range of study is extended, so as to occupy the full period of the pupil's connection with the school, it is sufficiently limited, to enable all of ordinary industry and talents to complete it in the prescribed period, if the pupil is possessed of sufficient knowledge at the time of her admission.

Theory and Practice of Teaching.—Lectures on the Principles of Education; embracing mental, moral and physical education. Also, instruction in school government, and teaching the elementary branches, and practice in teaching.

Mathematics.—Review of elementary arithmetic, and instruction in higher arithmetic, algebra, geometry and elementary astronomy.

Grammar.—Review of English grammar, and instruction in etymology, rhetoric and elements of composition.

Reading.—Instruction in English literature, and the art of reading.

History.—Review of geography and history of the United States, and instruction in the history of America, history of England, and general history of the world.

Writing.—Instruction in plain and ornamental penmanship.

Drawing.—Instruction in linear drawing, exercises in drawing from models, and principles of perspective.

Music.—Instruction in the elements and practice of vocal music.

Miscellaneous.—Instruction in natural philosophy, chemistry and physiology, is imparted entirely by lectures and examinations, by the Principal. Instruction in the constitutions of the United States and Pennsylvania, is given by the Principal and teacher of history.

In arranging the subjects and course of instruction, the aim is to restrict them chiefly to such branches or subjects, as are essential to a complete fulfillment of the duties of a teacher, under whatever circumstances she may be placed; and not only in the instruction, but in every relation the pupil holds to the school, her future destination as a teacher is kept prominently in view.

A very important feature of the exercises, is the recitation of the pupils to each other; in which a free expression of opinion, in the way of criticism, is encouraged; the modes of illustration being suggested by the pupils themselves, to meet the particular cases under consideration. This leads to originality of thought, and the application of methods not attainable in any other way. Thus, from the very entrance of the pupil into the school, to the completion of her course of study, practice in teaching is blended with positive instruction; and the powers of the pupil to communicate her ideas to others, are successfully cultivated; while exactness in the use of language becomes habitual. The purpose of the school, being particularly to develop the talents of the pupils as instructors, after a prescribed course of instruction on any topic is indicated by the Principal or teacher of the class, the recitations are left to be carried on by the pupils themselves.

The method of instruction is founded upon strictly inductive principles;—always proceeding from the known to the unknown. In pursuing this course much time is required, and the patience and skill of the teacher are subjected to the severest test;—while mere routine teaching, or simply imparting positive instruction, so generally practiced because attended with less labor, is carefully avoided. In the application of the first method, the mind being necessarily the active *agent* in obtaining knowledge, is unfolded, while in the latter, by its being the passive *recipient*, it is liable to be overburdened and the memory *only* improved. If the positive knowledge acquired by the inductive method is ever lost, the habit of thinking *remains*; and the reasoning powers are developed and disciplined.

In inculcating general principles, the theories are reduced to practice; and the danger of forming theoretical teachers is thus avoided. By applying principles, under circumstances where error is sure to be pointed out, and corrected by the observation of class-mates and teachers, every lesson becomes an exercise of thought and reason.

SCHOOLS OF PRACTICE.—The schools of practice consist of a girls' grammar school with 230 pupils, and two teachers, female principal and assistant; and a boys' secondary school with 147 pupils, and two female teachers, a female principal and assistant, in the same building with the Normal students. At least three pupils of the Normal School are employed at one time, in teaching in each school. The period occupied by the pupil-teacher is about four weeks in the term.

The pupil-teachers give instruction, under the immediate direction of the principals of the schools of practice; whose duty it is to teach *with* them and *for* them;—to aid them by advice, suggestions and example;—in effect, to instruct the classes *through* them as *aids*—not as *substitutes*. To enable the principal to give her undivided attention to the inexperienced pupil-teacher on first taking charge of a class, those engaged in the school are changed at such intervals, as to leave two experienced teachers occupied in teaching at one time; and on the introduction of the third,

the principal remains with her, until she can manage the class alone; a new teacher is then substituted for the one having been longest in practice. Before placing a pupil in charge of a class, the principal of the school carefully informs her as to the particular duties connected with its instruction and management. If after a brief trial, the pupil-teacher is found deficient in ability, readily to adapt herself to the circumstances of her new position, she is immediately withdrawn, her deficiencies noted, and her instruction in the Normal School directed to their removal. The duty of assigning lessons is performed entirely by the principal; the pupils being previously examined, at the close of the exercise, upon the subject of recitation. Thus making them immediately responsible to her, for their progress in learning.

The successful management and instruction of the classes in the schools of practice, depend to a great extent upon the principals of these schools; and this success will be in proportion to the attention given to the minutiae of the practical duties of the schools, with which all experienced teachers are familiar; guarding the pupil-teacher from falling into errors, instantly checking them when discovered, cultivating and bringing into exercise that tact required to arouse the dull, to keep in check the restless, to secure the attention of the indolent, and maintain a continued and uniform interest throughout the whole class while reciting.

The position of the principal thus occupied, is peculiar in its character;—requiring in a remarkable degree promptitude, patience and industry; her duty being not merely to *teach*, but to impart through others intellectual and moral instruction; to foster correct habits, and cultivate and bring into action the powers of both teachers and pupils, through the agency of the former. The character of these schools will therefore depend entirely upon the manner in which the principals perform their duties, whether they are really *schools of practice*, or mere *experimental* schools, in which the pupil-teachers are left to learn to correct errors, by first making them;—wasting their own time and that of their pupils, in attempts to *discover* methods, instead of putting them into *practice*.

In affording an opportunity to the Normal pupils to acquire practice in teaching and discipline, the question may arise, whether the pupils whom they teach have equal advantages with those taught entirely by permanent teachers. The success of any school, depends in a great measure upon the ability and tact of the principal in its *general management*. In a small school, where the instruction is all given by one teacher, but little qualification is necessary, besides ability to teach properly; but as the school becomes larger, the duties devolving upon its head are so far extended in the general management and discipline, as to render the ability to teach of comparatively little value, in the absence of tact in school government. Therefore, as an increase in the number of subordinate teachers becomes necessary, so, different qualifications are requisite on the part of the principal; and while aptness to teach is an indispensable qualification, it must be accompanied by ability to control, and bring into exercise the best powers of the assistant teachers, to insure the *effective* teaching of the whole school. In substituting for permanent assistants, pupil-teachers who remain in charge of the classes for a comparatively limited period, the tact of the principal, and her skill in school government, form so important an element in the success of the school, that no qualifications which the pupil-teachers may possess, can compensate for their absence.

Under corresponding circumstances, young teachers will be more thorough in their instruction, and accomplish more work than older ones: the novelty of their position, their desire to gain the approbation of those directing them, and of the pupils themselves; the great pleasure derived from bringing into practice qualifications they are conscious of possessing,

are incentives to exertion, which contribute largely to success. Again, the pupil-teachers are frequently found to communicate in a manner more *intelligible* to the pupils than those who are further removed by age; the difficulty of acquiring a knowledge of a particular subject, being forgotten by the older teacher, while not only the difficulty, but the proper means to overcome it, are yet fresh in the memory of the younger ones. The zeal and energy of the young teacher are imparted to her pupils; they exert themselves more than if under a teacher less their equal in age. There is more sympathy existing between the pupils and the young teachers; friendships are formed, a desire to please is engendered, and the discipline is maintained more by self-control than by forced obedience. The deep interest manifested by the pupil-teacher in the progress of her scholars, seldom fails to produce great exertion on the part of the latter, and instances are not unfrequent, where the teacher and pupils emulate each other, in their efforts to promote one another's happiness. If to all these, is added the watchful care of the principal, the results can not be other than satisfactory.

The pupil-teachers, before meeting their classes, are required carefully to study the lessons to be recited during the day, that they may add interest to the exercises, by imparting instruction on subjects incidental to the lesson. The confidence of the class is thereby gained; and finding that their instructor is not compelled to rely upon the text book, they look upon her as the *teacher*, not the mere *agent* to *compel* the recitation of the contents of the book. Thus, an interesting fact or an appropriate narrative, introduced into the exercises, is often found to give to the young teacher greater influence over the class, than all the ordinary means of discipline.

The pupil-teacher, accustomed herself to rigid thoroughness, insists upon it from habit, in the recitations of her pupils; the constant explanation leads to inquiry, and this to thought; and in this manner the foundation of correct education is laid.

While the general control of the school, and even much of the teaching, devolve upon the principal, the pupil-teachers are made accountable to her for the deportment of the pupils while under their care, and also for their progress in learning. It is therefore made their duty to report promptly to the principal all cases of misconduct, or neglect of studies.

To render the mode of instruction pursued in the schools of practice, conformable to the methods taught in the Normal School, the principal of the latter devotes a portion of time daily, to the supervision of those teaching in them.

EXAMINATIONS.—Written examinations of the pupils of the Normal School are made quarterly, in all the regular branches in which instruction has been given during the term. As the pupil's continuance in the school, her position in the class, or her promotion to a higher one, depends upon these tests of scholarship, their results are looked to with much anxiety. The intervals of their occurrence are not sufficiently great to lessen their influence on the recitations of the pupils, or the every-day discharge of duty; while their repetition is frequent enough to afford sufficient means of estimating the improvement. The results of these examinations, with the register of the daily recitations, are preserved; affording a complete history of the pupil's standing and progress, during the whole time of her connection with the school.

GRADUATING CLASSES.—Twice a year certificates are granted to such pupils as have completed the prescribed course of study, and were considered properly qualified to perform the duties of teachers in the public schools.

In determining the pupil's claim to a certificate as a properly qualified teacher, three leading requisites are considered, besides her moral qualities:

1. Her knowledge of the branches to be taught.
2. Her ability to communicate what she knows.
3. Her general literary attainments.

Every teacher should be so thoroughly conversant with the branches she professes to teach, as to be able to conduct the recitations without the use of text books; as, in proportion to her ability to do this, she will succeed in imparting to her pupils a *knowledge* of the subject, instead of its *mere definition*—the certain result of mere routine teaching from text books. It is obvious that ability to illustrate the subject of instruction, must depend entirely upon the teacher herself being so familiarized with it, as readily to meet the pupil's difficulties by prompt and clear illustrations.

Although a perfect acquaintance with the subjects proposed to be taught, is essential to the teacher, yet, to possess knowledge without ability to communicate it, would not constitute a qualified teacher; while the greatest powers to impart, could not compensate for ignorance of the branches proposed to be taught.

Thus, the perfect scholar may be an unsuccessful teacher, while the perfect teacher must be a perfect scholar, at least to the extent of the branches she teaches. The casual observer, or even the inattentive child, does not fail to distinguish between the mystifying, misleading, stultifying, and inefficient attempts of the *mere scholar* to teach, and the developing, educating, and even creating power of the thorough teacher. Adopting these views of the relative importance of scholarship and aptness to teach, and their inseparable connection as essential qualifications in forming the perfect teacher, no certificate is granted to a pupil deficient in either.

As a test of the candidate's literary qualifications, the results of every examination, from the time of her admission to the completion of the full course of study, in connection with her daily recitations, are considered. In estimating her ability to teach, and tact in school discipline, her performances in the schools of practice, occupying more than one-sixth of the time of her pupilage in the Normal School, are taken as a guide.

The moral character, industrious habits, and integrity of purpose of the candidate, are determined from an acquaintance extending through a period of time amply sufficient to arrive at a correct conclusion.

The following is a copy of the certificate given to graduates of the Normal School:

NORMAL SCHOOL.

First School District of Pennsylvania.

THIS IS TO CERTIFY, That ——— has pursued and completed, in a satisfactory manner, the course of study of the NORMAL SCHOOL, and is deemed competent to impart instruction in the branches taught in the Public Grammar Schools.

Principal.

By authority of the Controllers of Public Schools.

THIS CERTIFICATE is granted to ———, a pupil of the NORMAL SCHOOL, in testimony that her literary attainments, industrious habits, and integrity, qualify her to discharge properly all the duties of a Teacher.

President of the Board of Controllers.

Secretary.

Committee of the Normal School

Philadelphia, 18—

The Normal School was conducted on this plan by Prof. A. T. W. Wright, who had charge of the institution from its organization in Feb., 1848, until his resignation in 1856; and by Prof. Philip A. Cregar, until July, 1859, when it was converted into a High School for Girls. During this period of eleven years and a half, 1,127 pupil teachers were admitted on examination from the various Grammar Schools, of whom 400 received the diploma, over 700 were engaged as teachers in the schools of the city, and 153 remained as members of the High School.

The Public High School for Girls went into operation on the 29th of August, 1859, under the same committee and teachers who had been charged with the supervision and instruction of the Normal School. In the Report of the Principal, dated February 13th, 1860, there is the following reference to the Normal School, and the reasons for dropping the Model or Practice School, which gave it its practical professional character. The theoretical preparation for teaching was still retained in the course of instruction in the High School.

The improved condition of our schools, as compared with that which they presented at the establishment of the Normal School, gives striking evidence of the wisdom that prompted its institution. Its efficiency must have been much less without the School of Practice, yet this right arm of its power was destined to become the means of its destruction.

Many objections were raised to the organization of the Model School, and its failure predicted as a necessary result of the youth and inexperience of the pupil teachers, and the constant change which gave a new teacher to each class every two weeks.

These seeming disadvantages proved to be real superiorities over the system of permanent teachers.

The want of experience was compensated for in the superintendence of one who was competent to point out all the errors, and present to the young teacher the most approved modes of imparting instruction in every branch taught.

The short period allotted to the pupil for teaching did not admit of any relaxation of energy, and the amount of labor performed during the year by a corps of teachers changed every two weeks, was much greater than the energies of any single teacher for that whole period could possibly have produced.

Besides, the pupil teacher, having just learned what she was called upon to communicate to others, was keenly alive to the obstacles in the way of the learner, and explained small matters which the older teacher is likely to give the pupil credit for knowing, and pass over without coming down to the capacity of the scholar.

In short, from these advantages and the close system of teaching adopted in the School of Practice, requiring a reason for every thing that admitted of demonstration, the school rose from one of an elementary character to a successful competitor of the Grammar Schools in furnishing pupils for the Normal School.

This success was attributed by the principals of the Girls' Grammar Schools to extraneous advantages, of which they complained in a formal remonstrance, bearing date April 1st, 1859, and asked to have its grade reduced so as to remove it from the arena of competition.

This memorial was submitted to a special committee, who reported at a special meeting of the board held May 26th, 1859, in favor of abolishing the School of Practice and changing the Normal School into a High School, which was adopted by the board, June 9th.

In accordance with this action of the board the Normal School Committee prepared a plan for the organization of a Girls' High School, which was presented and adopted at the meeting of the board held June, 1859.

First.—The instructors shall be a Principal and nine assistants, a Professor of French, and a Professor of Music.

Second.—The number of pupils shall not exceed three hundred and fifty.

Third.—The first examination for admission of pupils shall commence on the 5th of July, and semi-annually thereafter on the last Monday of June and January.

Fourth.—Candidates must be fourteen years of age, they must present certificates that they are pupils of a Grammar School of the city of Philadelphia; and, after the first examination, that they have been pupils of a public school in the city for at least one year; and must pass a satisfactory examination in the following branches, viz.: Orthography, Definition of Words, Reading, English Grammar, History of the United States, Geography, Arithmetic and Penmanship.

Fifth.—The examinations (after the first) shall be conducted by the instructors of the school, from written questions previously prepared by them and approved by the committee of the school. It shall be the duty of said committee to be present and to assist at the examination, and the admission of the candidates shall be subject to their approval.

Sixth.—The course of studies and instruction shall comprise a three years' course, and shall be as follows:

JUNIOR CLASS.—Reading, Spelling, Writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Grammar, Algebra, Physical Geography, Latin, Analysis of Language and Structure of Sentences, Natural Philosophy, Constitution of the United States, Synonyms, Rhetoric, Composition, Exercises in Drawing and Vocal Music.

MIDDLE CLASS.—Natural Philosophy, continued, Constitution of the United States, completed, English Literature, Arithmetic, Algebra, Latin, Rhetoric, Drawing, Composition and Vocal Music, continued, Mensuration, Moral Philosophy, Physiology, General History, Ornamental Penmanship, Constitution of Pennsylvania, Exercises in Criticism, and French, commenced.

SENIOR CLASS.—Latin, French, Mensuration, Algebra, General History, Exercises in Ornamental Penmanship, Drawing and Vocal Music, continued, Geometry, Ancient History, Mental Philosophy, Astronomy, Chemistry, with Lectures, Exercises in Criticism of English Literature, Botany, Geology, and Mythology.

During the last two years, pupils who intend to become teachers shall have instruction and frequent exercises in teaching.

The number of pupils being limited to 350, the pupils of the Normal School (1853) were taken as a nucleus for the High School, and an examination of candidates from all the Grammar Schools, was held, under the direction of the High School Committee, by special examiners appointed by the Board.

The whole number admitted at this examination was 211, of which 66 were from the Model School, being nearly one-third of the whole number admitted from twenty-four schools. The High School, thus organized, was put into operation August 29th, 1853, as nearly in accordance with the above plan as circumstances would permit.

In 1860, on the recommendation of the Committee of the School, the Controllers gave prominence again to the Normal character, and it has since been designated in the official reports as the Girls' High and Normal School. The Committee referred to in a special report dated June 7th, 1860, remark:

"As the normal character of the High School is of more importance to the Public School system of our city than merely an extended course of study in the higher branches of learning, the Committee feel it their bounden duty to preserve this characteristic.

In their report for the year ending December 31, 1863, the Controllers remark:

No school under the management of the Board has so well fulfilled the expectations of its friends, so entirely accomplished the purposes of its foundation, as the Girls' High and Normal School.

In his report for the same year Prof. Cregar gives the names of 132 pupils who had been appointed teachers in either public or private schools since 1860.

PLANS OF CITY NORMAL SCHOOL-HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA.

The Normal School of Philadelphia was instituted in 1848, "for the thorough training of female teachers of the public schools, in those branches of a good English education, and in such practical exercises as will discipline and develop the mind, adorn and elevate the character, insure the best mode of imparting knowledge, establish uniformity in teaching, prevent fruitless experiments, manifold mistakes, and irreparable loss of time, with all their consequences to teachers and pupils." The building will accommodate 150 Normal pupils, and a School of Practice of 350 pupils, distributed in eight classes.



Fig. 1. PERSPECTIVE.

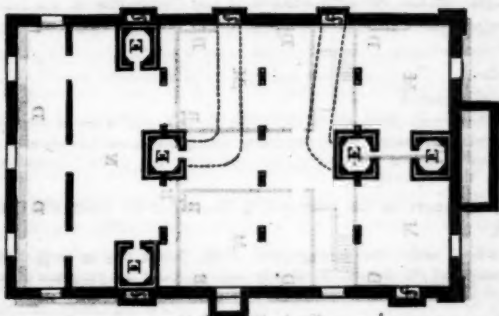


Fig. 2. PLAN OF CELLAR.

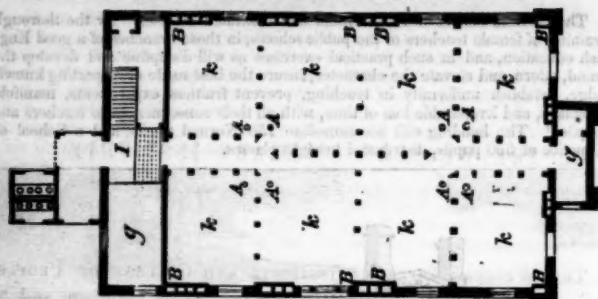


Fig. 3. First Floor.

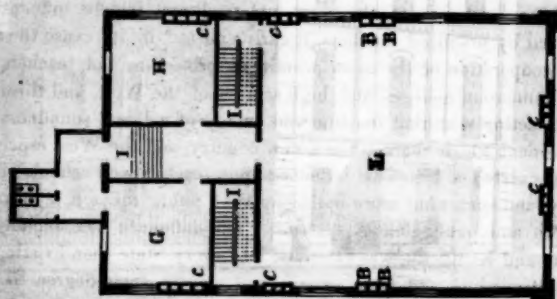


Fig. 4. Second Floor.

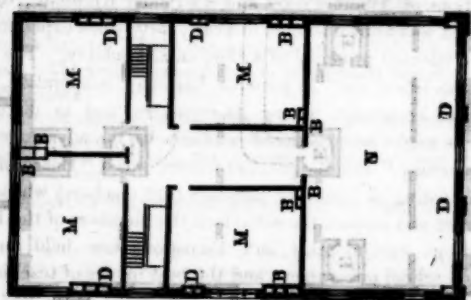


Fig. 5. Third Floor

VII. THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE.

AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS.

THE WESTERN LITERARY INSTITUTE AND COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS, more familiarly known to its members and to the public as THE COLLEGE OF TEACHERS, was not only one of the earliest of the educational associations of our country, but also proved itself one of the best, one of the most active, energetic and laborious, and one of the most practical and widely influential. Started by practiced teachers, it early enlisted in its cause the aid and coöperation of the most prominent professors and teachers in the numerous colleges and high schools of the West, and through them acting with that freedom and energy of will and soundness of judgment which characterize a new country, and the West especially, it exerted a beneficial influence upon teachers and schools generally, and somewhat more indirectly upon public opinion, legislative action and public school systems. This influence commencing in Ohio and Kentucky, was extended into every State then existing in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys, and also in some degree to the Atlantic States from Pennsylvania southward. The "College" originated in the "Western Academic Institute and Board of Education," which was founded in Cincinnati in the year 1829 through the exertions of Albert Picket and Alexander Kinmont; the first a veteran and well-known teacher of nearly forty years experience—the latter the talented principal of a Cincinnati academy. The purpose of the association was "to promote harmony, coöperation, and the diffusion of knowledge among its members, and to discuss such subjects as might be considered conducive to the advantage of education generally," and its peculiar feature was a "Board of Education" consisting of honorary members (not teachers) whose duty it was to visit and inspect the schools of the members of the Institute. Its meetings were monthly, and discussions were held during the year upon school government and the best modes of teaching. The first annual meeting, which is also considered as the first anniversary of the College of Teachers, was held on June 20th, 1831, and

was opened by an address from Rev. C. B. McKee, who was probably the first president. Addresses were also delivered by Rev. R. H. Bishop, the president of Miami University, and by Alexander Kinmont. The proceedings and addresses were published in the first number of the "*Academic Pioneer*," the first educational journal of the North-west, and conducted by a committee appointed by the Institute. Its publication was, however, discontinued through want of patronage; a second number only appeared in December, 1832, containing the proceedings of the second annual meeting.

But the results of the Institute thus far were found unsatisfactory. Its operations were mostly confined to the city of Cincinnati and its designs were almost wholly paralyzed by jealousies, local prejudices, and conflicting interests. Some of its founders were ready to abandon it, when Mr. Albert Picket proposed a plan for increasing its usefulness and respectability by calling a convention of the instructors and friends of education throughout the West. Circulars of invitation were accordingly sent to all teachers, whether in colleges, academies, or schools, and a considerable number convened at Cincinnati, continuing in session from the 3d to the 6th of October, 1832. Rev. Timothy Alden was appointed chairman and O. L. Leonard, of Frankfort, Ky., secretary. At this convention the "COLLEGE OF TEACHERS" was organized and a constitution adopted which, as slightly modified at the two subsequent meetings, was as follows:—

CONSTITUTION.

Whereas, The convention of Teachers assembled in Cincinnati, deeply impressed with the importance of organizing their profession in the Valley of the Mississippi by a permanent association, in order to promote the sacred interests of Education so far as may be confided to their care, by collecting the distant members, advancing their mutual improvement, and elevating the profession to its just intellectual and moral influence on the community, do hereby resolve ourselves into a permanent body, to be governed by the following Constitution:—

ARTICLE I. 1. This association shall be known by the name of "The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers." 2. Its objects shall be to promote by every laudable means, the diffusion of knowledge in regard to Education, and especially by aiming at the elevation of the character of teachers who shall have adopted instruction as their regular profession.

ARTICLE II. 1. This association shall be composed of such teachers of good literary and moral character, as may sign this constitution and pay to the Treasurer at the time a fee of one dollar; and such Societies for the promotion of Education, as are now or may hereafter be formed, which shall annually send delegates to its meetings. 2. Any gentleman eligible to membership, by paying at one time the sum of ten dollars, shall become a member for life, and be exempt from any further assessment. 3. An assessment of one dollar shall be laid on each member (except life members,) which if omitted to be paid within one year after the notice has been given him by the Treasurer, shall be considered as a forfeiture of membership. 4. Honorary members may be elected by the Society at the recommendation of the Board of Directory.

ARTICLE III. 1. The officers of the Society shall be a President, one Vice-President and five Directors for each State represented in this Institute, a Corresponding Secretary, a Recording Secretary, and a Treasurer, all of whom shall form the Board of Directory, to be elected at the annual meeting, and serve until their successors be chosen. 2. The President shall preside at the meetings of the Society. In case of his absence, a Vice-President, or a President *pro tempore* shall occupy the chair. 3. The Recording Secretary shall give notices of all meetings, keep a regular record of their proceedings, and have charge of the archives of the Society. 4. The Corresponding Secretary, subject to the Board of Directory, shall be the organ of communication with other Societies and individuals. 5. The Treasurer shall collect and receive all moneys due the Society, and pay them out at the order of the Directors; he shall keep a true account of all his receipts and disbursements, and make a report annually thereof, and oftener if required by the Directory. 6. The Board of Directors shall have the general management and supervision of the Society—with authority to devise and carry into effect such measures as will best advance its interests. They shall appoint competent persons to deliver the annual address and lectures, and recommend to the Society suitable persons to serve on standing committees. It shall be their duty to see that proper notice be given of the annual meeting by the Recording Secretary, at least three months previous to the time of convening. They shall appoint their own chairman and recorder, and exhibit their proceedings and report thereon at the annual meetings, and fill all vacancies that may occur in the Board or other offices of the Society. They shall have power to appoint from their number a local Executive Committee to carry into effect under their direction all the duties assigned to them by this Constitution. It shall further be the duty of the Executive Committee to procure the annual address and lectures for publication; they shall have the privilege of examining the reports of standing committees and other communications to the Society, and to publish such of them as may, in their opinion, throw light on the subject of education. 7. Each section of the Directory, with its Vice-President, in the States represented in this institution, shall have power to admit associates of this body, and shall be charged with the interests of education within their State, responsible to the general Institute for their proceedings which they shall report, at the annual meeting of this body; they shall have power to establish their own by-laws, not inconsistent with this Constitution.

ARTICLE IV. 1. The stated meeting of this Society shall be held annually on the first Monday in October, in the city of Cincinnati. 2. Special meetings may be convened by order of the Directory, having previously given two months notice. 3. The Board of Directory shall hold their stated meetings during the sitting of the Institute, and shall have power to make rules for their government.

ARTICLE V. 1. By-laws in accordance with this Constitution may be made at any meeting. 2. No alteration or amendment of this Constitution shall be made unless recommended by the Board of Directory, and agreed to by a majority of the members present, at an annual meeting.

The next (THIRD) general convention was held at Cincinnati, September 9th to 13th, with increased power and interest. Prof. Thomas J. Matthews presided. A number of addresses were delivered before the meetings by Prof. H. Bascom, Mason Butler, Alex. Kinmont, Prof. C. Bradford, Dr. Lyman Beecher, Pres. B. O. Peers, Prof. C. E. Stowe, and others, and discussions were held upon various subjects connected with common schools, by such men, among others, as Dr. Beecher, Pres. Peers, Judge Hall, Prof. E. Beecher, T. Walker, W. Greene, and S. J. Atlee. A school agent was appointed for the State of Ohio, and as an appreciable proof of the interest and spirit awakened at the meeting, it is stated that the amount of \$262 was immediately contributed for its support.

The plan was here commenced, which was always afterwards pursued and

found very effective, of referring subjects of educational interest to a number of special committees, who at the following meeting made written and very often able reports, which in turn gave rise to many animated and frequently protracted discussions. The constitutional requirement of the election of a Vice-President and Directory from each State represented in the College tended to preserve and extend the interest in the institution, while the faithful exertion of an always efficient Executive Committee secured the willing aid of able men from all parts of the West and South, and thus the meetings were made both interesting and profitable. An imperfect record only has been preserved of these earlier meetings and none of the addresses were published but such as appeared in the first number of the "*Pioneer*," but of the seven subsequent meetings, the proceedings and very nearly all the addresses and reports were published in full, in six volumes, under the title of the "*Transactions of the Western Literary Institute, &c.*" The minutes of the eleventh meeting, in 1841, appeared in pamphlet form, while of the later meetings until the last in 1845, we have nothing more than newspaper notices. For the sake of condensation, the subjects of the numerous addresses and reports, with the names of the authors alphabetically arranged, and the dates of delivery, are given in an annexed summary, with also a catalogue of the officers of the Institute for the years in which they are reported (1831, 1834-1842), omitting as of less importance the names of the five Directors elected annually from each State.

The FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING was held in Cincinnati, October 6th to 11th, 1834. This meeting was especially characterized by the eloquent address of Thomas S. Grinné, of South Carolina, against "*The Study of the U. S. C.*," and the discussion that followed upon the subject, between him and Mr. Kinnmont. Other able addresses were delivered and reports made, and discussions were held upon "*The Use of the Bible as a Class-book*," participated in by Grinné, Kinnmont, and D. Drake—on "*Corporal Punishment*," by Grinné, J. L. Wilson, and Drake—on "*Emulation as a Motive in Education*," by Kinnmont, Drake, W. H. McGuffey, J. L. Van Doren, F. Eckstein, A. M. Bolton, A. Wattles, W. Nixon, E. Slack, M. A. H. Niles, T. J. Matthews, and Fisher—on "*Circuit Schools*," and on "*The Employment of a Traveling Agent and Lecturer on Education*." "*The Use of the Bible as a Text-book*" in all schools was unanimously recommended; this action, though frequently discussed at other meetings was always sustained, and it was also now made the declared policy of the Institute not to constitute itself a "tribunal of review," nor to recommend any other text-book or series of books for introduction into the schools. A Board of Examiners was appointed for the purpose of granting certificates of qualification to teachers voluntarily offering themselves for examination in a course of study as prescribed at the last meeting for the different classes of schools. This movement towards elevating the "profession" of teachers was, however, of little effect. Some action was also taken for promoting the formation of auxiliary State societies, of which the Executive Committee reported one as already formed in Ohio, which had obtained a charter for a "Teachers' Institute."

The FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 5th to 10th, 1835, and proved to be one of unusual interest. The reports of Samuel Lewis, School Superintendent for Ohio, upon "*The best method of Establishing and Forming Common Schools in the West*," and of Prof. C. E. Stowe upon "*The Education of Immigrants*," gave rise to discussions of uncommon earnestness

and ability, in which Messrs. Drake, Kinmont, McGuffey, E. D. Mansfield, Judge Looker, T. Walker, and J. L. Wilson took active parts. There was also a discussion by Messrs. Drake, Kinmont, and others, upon "*The Study of Anatomy and Physiology in Schools.*"

Committees were appointed for each of the States of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana, to circulate and present to the Legislatures of those States petitions for immediate and efficient enactments providing for the universal education of all free citizens, and for the establishment of institutions for the education of a sufficient number of teachers. Each State Directory was also advised to convene the friends of education for the organization of auxiliary State societies, and State conventions were accordingly held at Lexington in November, 1835, and at Columbus in January, 1836.

THE SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 3d to 7th, 1836. At this meeting there were discussions upon "*The Use of the Bible in Schools,*" by Rev. J. L. Wilson, Dr. Alex. Campbell, Bishop Purcell, Kinmont, and others; on "*The best method of Studying the Bible in Schools,*" on "*The division of Pupils into classes according to their regular or irregular attendance,*" (following a report by Samuel Jervis upon the causes of the fluctuation of schools;) on "*Existing inefficient modes of Instruction,*" by Messrs. W. Twining, W. F. Ferguson, W. H. McGuffey, E. N. Elliott, J. P. Harrison, R. Morecraft, E. Slack, J. L. Talbott, A. Kinmont, and A. Campbell; on "*Manual Labor in Colleges,*" on Dr. Campbell's lecture upon "*Moral Culture,*" by Dr. Harrison, Kinmont, Campbell, and Purcell; on "*The formation of Teachers' Associations;*" and on "*The study of Astronomy and Physiology in Schools.*" A communication was also received from Mrs. Lydia H. Sigourney upon "*Female Education.*" The formation of township libraries, and library associations, was recommended,—a prize of \$100 was offered for the best essay on the maxim, "*Knowledge is Wealth,*"—and arrangements were made for the publication of an educational monthly, the "*Western Academician and Journal of Education and Science,*" under the editorship of John W. Picket.

THE SEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 2d to 7th, 1837. An address by Samuel Lewis upon "*Extending public instruction so as to embrace the educational wants of the whole community,*" gave rise to a protracted discussion by Messrs. Pierce, of Michigan, McGuffey, Kinmont, Purcell, Campbell, Mansfield, Stowe, Lewis, J. Stevens, Harrison, W. Scott, and S. V. Marshall. "*The moral influence of a system of honors and rewards,*" was discussed by Messrs. Lynd, Drake, Harrison, Beecher, P. T. Brooks, and T. Walker; and the subject of "*Emulation as a motive in Education,*" after protracted discussion by Messrs. Drake, Campbell, Mansfield, Stevens, Harrison, Kinmont, Brooks, Purcell, W. Nixon, O. Chester, W. F. Thomas, Beecher, Walker, and McGuffey, was finally referred to a committee for report at the next meeting. There were also interesting debates on a higher education and increased compensation as essential to making a "profession" of teachers, by Messrs. Beecher, Mansfield, N. Wright, Marshall, McGuffey, and others; and again upon the reading of the Bible as a religious exercise in schools. Resolutions were passed approving of the establishment of State Departments of Education, recommending the study of Constitutional Law, and practice in Vocal Music, in

Common Schools, and adopting the "Western Academician" as the the organ of the Institution.

The EIGHTH ANNUAL CONVENTION was held at Cincinnati, October 1st to 6th, 1838. The most prominent subjects for discussion before this meeting were "Normal Schools," "Seminaries for Female Education," and "Sunday School Instruction." The first subject was introduced by Supt. Lewis, was reported upon by Prof. Stowe, and ably debated by Messrs. Lewis, Stowe, Drake, J. Denham, J. C. F. Salomon, McGuffey, T. T. Loomis, C. L. Telford, J. M. Stevenson, Brisbane, and Linsley. The subject of female education was discussed by Messrs. McGuffey, Drake, Stowe, Salomon, Beecher, and Harrison; and the relation of Sunday Schools to Common Schools, and the propriety of permitting the use of public school-houses by Sunday schools were considered at great length by Messrs. Stowe, Harrison, Beecher, W. R. Whitmore, Langdon, McGuffey, Drake, Walker, W. Greene, J. Challen, G. Guilford, C. Graham, Jr., A. G. Smith, and Jarvis. A report of Dr. Beecher upon Emulation was followed by a counter report from Messrs. Picket, Drake, and McGuffey, and a discussion, participated in by Messrs. Drake, Harrison, McGuffey, Wylie, Stowe, Arnold, Beecher, Greene, Mansfield, and Salomon. There were other debates upon the effects of a multiplication of colleges, by Messrs. McGuffey, Stowe, Lewis, and M. M. Caril—and upon the use of printed questions and answers. Essays were received from Mrs. A. Lincoln Phelps and Mrs. Caroline Lee Phelps.

The publication of the "Western Academician" having ceased at the close of its first volume, the Executive Committee were advised to continue it if found practicable.

The Institute during the previous year had suffered the loss of one of its ablest and most active members, Alexander Kinmont. Remarks eulogistic of his worth and services were made in the addresses of Mr. Picket and Prof. Stowe.

The NINTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 7th to 12th, 1839. Few addresses were delivered at this meeting and the time was principally occupied in the consideration of reports and in discussion. The question of "*The subjects which should be embraced in a course of Female Education*" was fully discussed by Messrs. Lewis, Wilson, Purcell, W. Johnston, Rev. L. L. Hamline, Prof. Walker, Beecher, J. Wright, Arnold, Caril, Pres. C. G. Forshey, Prof. J. M. Trimble, S. N. Manning, J. McD. Matthews, Rev. Dr. Atlee, Vaughan, and Harrison. Other debates were held upon the influence of "*Chartered Institutions upon Private Schools*," by Messrs. O. M. Mitchell, Telford, W. Greene, Lewis, Pres. T. J. Biggs, J. H. Jones, Hamline, Rev. J. T. Brooke, Manning, Rev. N. Sneythen, Matthews, and Vaughan—on "*Evening Schools*," by Messrs. Telford, P. S. Symmes, B. P. Aydelott, Brooke, Lewis, Blanchard, J. Challen, and J. S. Williams—on "*Teaching as a Profession*," by Messrs. Aydelott, N. Holley, Greene, Johnston, Mansfield, E. P. Langdon, Jones, Symmes, Trimble, Biggs, Forshey, Rev. Mr. Powell, J. L. Talbott, and Dr. W. F. Lowrie—on "*The study of the General and State Constitutions in School*," by Messrs. Greene, Lewis, Wilson, N. Wright, Harrison, Johnston, Trimble, Forshey, Talbott, Telford, Brooke, Wright, and Smith—on "*The association of Sensation and Ideas in Education*," by Messrs. T. Maylin, Harrison, Caril, Manning, Sneythen, and Biggs—and on "*The evil effects of Vagrancy upon Schools*," by

Messrs. J. H. Perkins, Biggs, Brooke, Vaughan, Lewis, M. G. Williams, Carl, Atlee, Powell, Langdon, Challen, Trimble, Jones, J. Dillingham, Telford, and Symmes. The usual exercises were varied by an exhibition of the pupils of the State Institute for the Blind, and by several lectures upon different branches of physical science, illustrated by experiments, by Dr. J. D. Craig. A report was received from an auxiliary society that had been formed in Mississippi.

The TENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 5th to 10th, 1840. At this meeting addresses were delivered by R. Park and Dr. Morrill, numerous reports were made by the appointed committees, and discussions were held, as follows:—on "*Military discipline in Schools*," by Messrs. O. M. Mitchell, Harrison, Forshey, Perkins, Telford, J. Williamson, N. Wright, Vaughan, Greene, Atlee, Manning, Biggs, and Prof. F. Merrick—on "*A course of study for Females*," by Messrs. Johnston, Harrison, Stowe, Greene, Beecher, Forshey, and Challen—on "*The position of the Ancient Languages in a College Course*," by Messrs. Biggs, Stowe, Mitchell, Brooke, O. Prescott, and Johnston—on "*The definite objects for the action of the College*," by Messrs. Lewis, Biggs, Stowe, Atlee, Talbott, G. R. Hand, Mitchell, Perkins, and F. Merrick—on "*The union of Western teachers*," by Messrs. Brooke, S. P. Langdon, Biggs, Talbott, and Wylie—on "*The proper time for commencing the study of the Greek and Roman classics*," by Messrs. Stowe, Biggs, Merrick, Langdon, Brooke, Lewis, Manning, T. A. Goodhue, Mitchell, Challen, Greene, Beecher, and Forshey—on "*The inutility of college endowments, scholarships, &c.*," by Messrs. Perkins, Manning, Harrison, Biggs, R. Davidson, Greene, Forshey, Wylie, Brooke, Stowe, and Mitchell. Reports were also received from the Cincinnati Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, and from the Ohio Mechanics' Institute, as well as from several delegates respecting the condition of education in their respective States.

The ELEVENTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Cincinnati, October 4th to 9th, 1841. Addresses were delivered by Pres. Biggs, Prof. Loomis, Dr. Aydelott, Prof. Howard, E. D. Mansfield, and others. Among the reports received was an able one upon "*The defects of the Common School Laws*," made by Dr. Leavitt, and afterwards published in the "*Western School Journal*," of Louisville. It was followed by a discussion by Messrs. Leavitt, Greene, and W. Johnson. Other debates were held on "*The defects of the present system of instruction*," by Messrs. Greene, Mitchell, Dr. J. Ray, and J. J. Moss—on "*The inutility of College Endowments*," by Messrs. Greene, Biggs, Stowe, H. W. Wright, Moss, J. B. Walker, and Galloway—on "*Teaching as a distinct Profession*," by Messrs. Greene, Moss, Johnson, Galloway, Mitchell, Leavitt, and Wylie—on "*Religious instruction in Colleges and Seminaries*," by Messrs. Stowe, Greene, Harrison, Moss, Walker, Beecher, Davidson, and Wylie—on "*The objections to the study of the Mathematics*," by Messrs. Mitchell, Davidson, Moss, and J. G. Rosenstein—on "*The necessity of the distinct incorporation of each school district for school purposes*," by Messrs. E. P. Langdon, M. G. Williams, and Leavitt—on "*The objects and prospects of the College*," by Messrs. Talbott, Wylie, Biggs, B. Baker, and J. L. Van Doren. Mrs. Emma Willard also communicated an essay upon "*Female Education*." It was decided that the next convention should be held in Louisville, and that the time of meeting should be changed from October to August.

The TWELFTH ANNUAL MEETING was held at Louisville, Ky., August 15th

to 20th, 1842. The time of the session was chiefly taken up in the discussion of "*The School Laws, and the proposed organization of a profession of educators*"—on a "*Bill concerning Public Instruction*" for the several States—and on "*The various methods of Education and Instruction*"—in which discussions an active part was taken by Messrs. Noble Butler, J. H. Harvey, F. Shackelford, B. B. Smith, O. S. Leavitt, S. H. Thomson, Talbott, B. F. Farnsworth, Harrison, J. W. Hall, M. Sturgess, F. Eckstein, and G. R. Hand. There was also a discussion on "*The introduction of the study of Natural Theology into Schools and Colleges*," by Messrs. Harney, Eckstein, Thomson, Banks, Farnsworth, Buck, Shackelford, and Leavitt. The "*Western School Journal*," published by O. S. Leavitt at Louisville, was made the organ of the Institute.

An extra session of the College was held at Cincinnati, October 20th and 21st, and again at Columbus, Ohio, on the 27th and 28th of December, 1842. The annual sessions of 1843 and 1844 were held at Louisville, but in 1845 it returned to Cincinnati, where a very interesting meeting was held, attended by delegates from New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, as well as from the Western States. But of these meetings we have no further record. The College ceased the publication of its proceedings after 1840; those for 1839 and 1840 having been published by the aid of the Cincinnati Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. The previous volumes had been printed without expense to the Institute, and all other expenses had been defrayed without difficulty from the annual fees and contributions of its members. This interruption in the publication of its proceedings was unfortunate both for the public and the association; for the public, because a large amount of valuable matter was thereby lost, and for the Institute, because the discontinuance discouraged many of the valuable members entirely, and rendered others lukewarm, and finally caused a suspension of its sessions. Another reason for its decline may, perhaps, be found in the removal of the management out of the hands of the working teachers of Cincinnati to those of Louisville. Upon its removal to that city its energy was largely expended upon the somewhat chimerical project of erecting by law a "profession" of teachers. Failure in this and a gradual decline in popular interest, acting upon the more mercurial temperament of Southern men, dampened their ardor and discouraged continued effort. The error was seen too late and the return home could not restore lost vitality. State associations and local Institutes have since taken its place, but being composed in most instances wholly of teachers, they are for that reason inferior to the older "Literary Institute," and want an important element of perpetuity—an element, moreover, whose tendency would be to raise them above their own limited sphere of thought and interest, and bring them into more intimate familiarity with other fields of view, and thought, and action.

ADDRESSES, LECTURES, ESSAYS, AND REPORTS, at the meetings of the College of Teachers from 1831 to 1843.

- AYDELOTT, B. P., Pres. Woodward College, Cincinnati.—Reports on the best method of studying the Bible in schools, 1836; on domestic education, 1837; on the use of selections from the Bible in schools, 1837; on the duties now incumbent on American citizens, 1839.—Addresses on the mutual relations of College trustees and faculties, 1837; on the advantages of a department of English Language and Literature in Colleges, 1838; on Christian education in educational institutions, 1841.
- BARBER, Dr. W. J., Cincinnati.—Report on Zoology as a branch of education, 1841. Address on Natural Theology as a branch of education, 1842.
- BARNARD, H., Hartford.—Address on the conditions of a successful system of public schools, 1842.
- BARBOON, Rev. H. B., D. D., Augusta College, Ky.—Address on the philosophy of letters, as a question of moral interest, 1832.
- BEECHER, Rev. LYMAN, D. D., Pres. Lane Theol. Sem.—Address on the importance of making teaching a profession, 1833. Report on Emulation, 1838.
- BIGGS, T. J., Prof. at Lane Sem.—Addresses on Domestic Education, 1835; on the position of the Ancient Languages in a collegiate course, 1840; on Practical Teaching, 1841. Reports on the definite objects calling for the action of the Institute, 1840; on the formation of a Western Academy of Science, 1840.
- BISHOP, Rev. R. H., Pres. Miami Univ.—Addresses on the general demands of education, 1831; on difficulties in the management of colleges, 1836.
- BRADFORD, Prof. C.—Addresses on the Modern Languages, 1839; on the kind of education adapted to the West, 1833.
- BUCHANAN, J., Madison, Ky.—Report on Emulation as a motive in education, 1834.
- BURROUGH, Miss C. M.—Essay on Female Education, 1841.
- BUTLER, MARY, Louisville.—Address on the qualifications of teachers, 1832.
- BUTLER, NOBLE, Louisville.—Report on the study of History in schools, 1842.
- CAMPBELL, ALEX.—Address on the importance of uniting the moral with the intellectual culture of the mind, 1836.
- CARLL, M. M.—Address on moral culture, 1838. Report on the order and development of the moral and intellectual faculties, 1840.
- CHALLEN, Rev. JAMES.—Report on the importance of cultivating the conscience, 1840.
- CRAIG, J. D., Cincinnati.—Address on the present inefficient and superficial modes of instruction, 1836. Lectures on the Laws of Motion; Pneumatics; Electricity; and Electro-Magnetism, 1839.
- DAVENPORT, DARIUS.—Report on certain questions from the Trustees of the Cincinnati Schools, 1835.
- DAVIDSON, R., Pres. Transylvania Univ.—Reports on the value of the study of Ethics in colleges and schools, 1846; on a collegiate course for the West, 1841.
- DILLINGHAM, J.—Report on Education in Georgia, 1830.
- DRAKE, DANIEL, M. D., Cincinnati.—Addresses on Physical Education, 1833; on the philosophy of family, school, and college discipline, 1834. Reports on the study of anatomy and physiology in common schools, 1836; on the preparatory education of the physician, 1838.
- DUMONT, Mrs. J. L.—Letter on the inducements to adopt teaching as a profession for life, 1837.
- ECHESTEIN, F.—Report on Linear Drawing, 1837.
- EDWARDS, J. M.—Report on the best method of teaching Geography, 1841.
- EXELLS, SAMUEL.—Addresses on the dignity of the office of the professional teacher, 1837; on the principles of the formation of society, 1839.
- ELLIOTT, Dr. E. N.—Address on a systematic course of Biblical studies, 1842.
- FOOTE, J. P.—Addresses on the Mechanics' Institute of Cincinnati, 1837; on Discipline, 1839; on the union of labor and study, 1842.
- FORBNEY, Prof. C. G., Natchez.—Reports on Education in Mississippi, 1839; on meteorology, 1841.
- GODDARD, F. E., Louisville.—Address on the history of Mathematical Science, 1832.
- GRINKE, T. S., Charleston, S. C.—Address against the classics and mathematics as a part of the course of general education in our country, 1834.
- HALL, J. W., Dayton.—Addresses on the Art of Education, 1842; on the character of Washington, 1842.
- HAMLIN, Rev. L. L.—Address on a more extended view of Female Education, 1830.
- HAND, D., Jr.—Report on the best method of teaching Arithmetic, 1839.
- HAND, G. R.—Reports on Primary Instruction, 1839; on a course of instruction in common schools, 1840.
- HARNEY, Prof. J. H.—Addresses on learning as essential to educators, 1842; on the teacher's profession and the school laws, 1842.
- HARRISON, Dr. J. P.—Address on Popular Education, 1836.
- HEENAN, J. A., Cincinnati.—Report on the peculiarities of German Universities, 1841.
- HENTE, Mrs. C. L.—Poem, 1837. Essay on Conversation as a branch of education, 1838.
- HOLLY, NATHANIEL, Cincinnati.—Addresses on preserving the innocence of childhood and uniting to it a thorough education, 1832; on the necessity of universal education, 1833; on professional teaching, 1839. Reports on Mr. Grinke's proposed course of study, 1833; on the means of arousing the community on the subject of education, 1836.
- HOPWOOD, WILLIAM, Cincinnati.—Address on the best method of teaching languages, 1834. Report on the need of an improved book of definitions, 1835.
- HOWARD, Prof. W. G.—Address on the reciprocal duties of parents and teachers, 1841.
- HUNTOON, Rev. BENJ.—Address on the importance of moral education keeping pace with the mechanic arts, 1837.
- JOHNSTON, WILLIAM.—Address on Female education, 1839.
- JONES, J. H.—Address on infant schools as a valuable auxiliary in the cause of education, 1839.

- KINMONT, ALEXANDER.—Addresses on the objects of the Institute, 1831; on the study and nature of the ancient languages, 1832; on the study of character, 1833. Reports on the study of the ancient classics a necessary part of education, 1834; on Anatomy and Physiology as a study in schools, 1835; on the means of rendering the study of fictitious compositions beneficial to the student, 1836.
- LEAVITT, Dr. O. S.—Reports on the defects of the school laws and the remedies, 1841; on the school laws, 1842.
- LEONARD, O. L., Ky.—Reports on the means of arousing the community on the subject of education, 1836; on the best means of early mental culture, 1837.
- LEWIS, JOHN, Ky.—Address on Practical Teaching, 1842.
- LEWIS, SAMUEL, Ohio School Sup't.—Address on extending the common school course to meet the wants of all classes, 1837. Reports on the best mode of establishing schools at the West, 1835; on the causes of fluctuation of schools; the evils, and remedies, 1836.
- LOOMIS, Prof.—Address on Meteorology, its progress and importance, 1841.
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- LYNN, Rev. S. W.—Address on the moral influence of reward in a system of education founded on the word of God, 1837.
- McGUFFEY, Rev. W. H., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the influence of the study of the Bible on intellectual and moral improvement, 1834; on the relative duties of parents and teachers, 1833. Reports on English Composition, 1835; on the best method of conducting examinations, 1836.
- McKEE, Rev. C. B.—Address on the importance of elevating the teacher, 1831.
- McLEAM, Hon. JOHN.—Address on the formation of society, and the introduction of the elementary principles of government in a course of popular instruction, 1838.
- McLORD, DONALD.—Report on Elocution and extemporaneous speaking, 1835.
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- McMATTERS, J. D.—Report on a course of study for females, 1840.
- MAWNEY, S. N.—Report on the co-operation of parents and teachers, 1840.
- MANFIELD, E. D.—Addresses on the study of the mathematics, 1834; on the qualifications of teachers, 1836; on the uses of history, 1838. Biographical sketch of J. S. Grimké, 1834. Reports on the study of criminal and constitutional law in literary institutions, 1837; on a "Manual of Instruction" for the Mississippi Valley, 1835; on preparatory education for the legal profession, 1838.
- MASON, T. B., Cincinnati.—Report on vocal music as a branch of common school education, 1837.
- MATTHEWS, Prof. T. J.—Report on emulation as a motive in education, 1834.
- MAYLIN, Miss A. W., Salem, N. J.—Essay on the pains and pleasures of teaching, 1839.
- MAYLIN, THOMAS.—Addresses on the nature and object of education, 1833; on the association of sensations and ideas in education, 1839. Reports on the means of cultivating voluntary obedience in youth, 1840; on intellectual and moral science, 1842.
- MELINE, J. J.—Address on the study of the modern languages, 1838.
- MERRICK, Prof. F.—Report on natural science as part of a college course, 1840.
- MERRILL, Dr. SAMUEL.—Addresses on the immortality of the teacher's moral influence, 1840; on economical education, 1841.
- MILLS, Rev. T. A.—Report on the evidences of Christianity as a branch of education, 1840.
- NITCHELL, Prof. O. M.—Report on civil engineering as a branch of collegiate education, 1837; on learned societies and their influence, 1840; on the main points used in Great Britain against the mathematics, 1841.
- MONTGOMERY, Rev. S. H.—Addresses on the necessity and importance of education, 1836; on the study of human life, 1836.
- MORRISON, M. W.—Address on common schools, 1831.
- MOSE, J. J.—Address on what constitutes good teachers and how to procure them, 1841.
- MUMFORD, R.—Address on the duties of parents and trustees, 1832.
- MUSERT, Dr.—Address on the influence of tight lacing upon health and life, 1839.
- NILES, M. A. H., Prof. at Hanover Col., Ind.—Addresses on the number of pupils for one teacher, 1832; on the government of public literary institutions, 1834.
- NIXON, Prof. W.—Address on the nature and moral influence of music, 1834.
- NETTING, R., Prof. at W. Reserve Col.—Report on so arranging the college vacations as to permit students to engage in teaching, 1836.
- OLDS, C. N., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the patriotic duties of teachers, 1839.
- PARK, R., Prof. at Univ. of Penn.—Report on pantology, or the classification of human knowledge, 1840.
- PENNS, Rev. B. O.—Address on intellectual education, especially in its early stages, 1833.
- PENNINGMAN, A. W.—Address on methods of teaching the blind, 1830.
- PERKINS, J. H.—Addresses on the importance of forming societies auxiliary to the Institute, 1840; on the education of girls, 1842. Reports on the influence of vagrant boys upon our city schools, 1839; on the English universities, 1840.
- PHELPS, Mrs. A. H. L.—Essay on female education, 1838.
- PICKET, ALBERT, Sen., Prin. Cin. Fem. Institute.—Opening address on the objects of the Institute, 1834; on education, 1835; on parents, teachers, and schools, 1836; on reforms in education, 1838; on the formation of character in individuals, 1837; on the qualification of teachers, 1839; on the want of education, 1841, 1842.
- PIERCE, Rev. J. D., Supt. of Pub. Instruction in Mich.—Address on a correct knowledge of human nature essential to successful teaching, 1837.
- POST, T. M., Prof. at Ill. Col.—Address on the expediency of studying the classics, 1834.
- PUCKELL, J. B., Bishop.—Address on the philosophy of the mind, 1836. Reports on using selections from the Bible in schools, 1837; on the Ohio Institution for the blind, 1839.
- QUINAN, T. H., Prin. Cin. Adelphi Sem.—Report on emulation as a motive in education, 1834.
- RAY, JOSEPH, Prof. at Woodward Col.—Reports on the utility of cabinets of natural science as a means of education, 1836; on the value of the blackboard, and method of using it, 1839; on the influence which Boards of Examination may exert upon the qualifications of teachers, 1840.
- REEVES, T. S., Virginia.—Address on education, 1838.

- BERRY, J. L., Phila.—Address on the Lancasterian or monitorial system of instruction, 1830.
 ROBBINS, Prof.—Address on self-education, 1842.
 ROSENSTERN, Dr. J. G.—Address on physical education, 1841.
 SALOMON, J. C. F.—Report on gymnastics, 1838.
 SCOTT, J. W., Prof. at Miami Univ.—Address on the importance of more practical education, 1835.
 SCOTT, Rev. WALTER.—Address on the outlines of true education and the national system, 1837.
 SHANNON, JAMES, Pres. Louisiana Coll.—Address on appeals to honor and moral sentiments as a substitute for corporal punishment, 1830.
 SIBOURNEY, Mrs. L. H.—Essay on female patriotism, 1836.
 SIM, THOMAS, Jr.—Address on the claims of phrenology upon the attention of the teacher, 1836.
 SLACK, ELLIAN, D. D., Oxford, O.—Addresses on physical science in general, 1832; on the application of principles to practice in physical science, 1834. Reports on agriculture as a branch of common school education, 1836; on the benefit to be derived to the student from the reading of fictitious compositions in school, 1836.
 SMITH, Rev. B. B.—Address on the state of education in Kentucky, 1842.
 STONE, E.—Report on book-keeping, 1836.
 STOWE, C. E., Prof. at Lane Sem.—Addresses on the discipline of the intellectual powers, 1833; on the present system of education, 1837; on the Bible as a means of intellectual and moral improvement, 1838. Reports on the education of immigrants, 1835; on normal schools, 1838; on preparatory education for the ministry, 1838; on the early history of education, 1840.
 TALBOT, D. T.—Report on the best method of teaching composition, 1835.
 TALBOT, J. L.—Address on learning essential to educators, 1842. Reports on geography, 1839; on an educational periodical in the West, 1842.
 VAN DOREN, J. L., Pres. Y. Ladies' Coll., Lexington.—Address on Calisthenics, 1834. Report on the order of studies in primary female schools, 1834.
 VANCE, ELLIAN.—Address on a uniform system of common school education and on adapting it to our republican institutions, 1838.
 WALKER, TIMOTHY.—Addresses on the object of education in the United States, 1833; on the ultraisms of the age, 1841.
 WILLARD, Mrs. EMMA.—Essay on female education, 1841.
 WILLIAMS, M. G.—Addresses on manual labor as a means of reducing college expenses; should it be obligatory or optional? 1836; on the importance of educational departments in our State governments, 1837.
 WILLIAMSON, JAMES.—Report on the duty of teachers in cultivating a pacific spirit in schools, 1841.
 WILSON, J. L. D. D.—Addresses on a system of universal education not only desirable but practicable, 1836; on the objects of the Institute, 1839. Report on infant schools, 1837.
 WOOD, WILLIAM, M. D.—Addresses on the influence of education on the physical development of man, 1837; on physical education, 1838.
 WOOLLEY, G. W.—Report on the best method of teaching penmanship, 1835.
 WYLLIE, ANDREW, Pres. Univ. of Ind.—Addresses on discipline in schools and colleges, 1838; on the religious elements of education, 1840; on the best means of elevating the teachers' profession, 1841; on the sentiment of veneration, 1842.

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VIII. AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

It is difficult to over estimate the importance of Text-Books, in the external or internal economy of education—in the magnitude of the pecuniary interests involved to publishers, authors, and parents, as well as the right performance of the work of instruction by teachers and pupils in schools of every grade. In this and subsequent numbers of the Journal, we purpose to contribute something toward a fuller understanding of the growth and condition of this great interest in this country,—both in its material and its scholastic aspects—of the manufacture and illustration of books, and of the principles and methods applied to the development of particular subjects, as well as of the modes adopted to secure their introduction into particular schools, cities, and states. Although the subject will not be treated regularly in this order, when our review is complete, it will be found to embrace—

I. **AUTHORS AND BOOKS.** A catalogue of authors, including the name of the author, or editor, so far as can be ascertained by the compiler, of every publication, that has been used, or prepared for use as a text-book in this country, with the title, edition, place and date of publication of each work.

II. **SUBJECTS.** A catalogue of the same books and authors, included in Part I., arranged according to the subject upon which they treat—or at least an index to the authors who have treated of each subject.

III. **PUBLISHERS.** A catalogue of publishers, who will furnish a complete list of the text-books which they have issued, classified by authors and subjects, and which they are now prepared to furnish.

IV. **A review of the plan—the principles and development, on which the text-books most in use are prepared, with a comparison of the merits of a few of the principal text-books on the same subject.**

V. **The results—"the Odds and Ends" of some study, incidental and accidental, as well as designed, as to the origin, illus**

trations, authorship, real and claimed, and the religious and political tendencies and aims—apart from the specific and avowed purpose, of certain school books.

VI. Suggestions as to the preparation, and manufacture, and introduction of school books, in reference to the interests of purchasers, teachers, and pupils, as well as of authors, publishers, agents, and venders generally.

PART I. AUTHORS AND BOOKS.

The catalogue of authors and books, of which we commence the publication in this number, was originally intended to embrace the Text-Books in the compiler's own collection, but has been extended to include all of American authorship, publication, or use, of which he has been able to obtain any information. This information, in many instances, is very imperfect and unsatisfactory, but will at least serve as a clue to further inquiry.

The books, to whose title a single asterisk (*) is annexed, as also the editions, whose dates, or places of publication are placed within parenthesis (), are not in his possession. Of each of these books the compiler would be glad to obtain a copy, by exchange of duplicates in his possession, which are indicated by a double asterisk (**).

No dates are abbreviated unless later than 1800. Other abbreviations will need no explanation.

Much pains has been taken to secure correctness and completeness. Many errors, however, and omissions will doubtless be detected in regard to those books, which the compiler has not seen, and whose titles, dates, and places of publication, and authorship have been gleaned from numerous sources, not always reliable.

Corrections and additional information are solicited. To any collector, author, or publisher, who will signify a wish to see the list under any letter of the alphabet, before it is published, that it may be made to include a correct entry of every school book under that letter in his possession or knowledge, an impression will be forwarded, before it is printed, and any addition, or correction returned will be entered, before the same is published.

All communications relating to this subject can be addressed directly to the "*Editor of the American Journal of Education*," Hartford, Conn.

H.

- HAAS, J. D.,**
Kohlrausch's History of Germany. New York, 1839.
- HACHETTE,**
Elements de Geometrie. Paris.*
- HACHENBERG, C. F.,**
Grammatica Græcæ Pars Prior. Utrecht, 1792.
Elements of Greek Grammar. See C. A. Goodrich.
- HACKETT, H. B.,**
Exercises in Hebrew Grammar. Andover.*
Winer's Grammar of the Chaldee. Andover, 1845.*
- HACKLEY, CHARLES W.,**
Treatise on Algebra. New York, 1854.*
Elementary course of Geometry. New York, 1855.*
Elements of Trigonometry. Phil., 1838.*
Treatise on Trigonometry. New York, 4th edition, 1855, 1854, 1853.*
- HADDON, JAMES,**
Rudimentary Book-Keeping. London, 1851.*
Rudimentary Arithmetic. London, 1851.*
Elements of Algebra. London, 1850.*
- HADLEY, JAMES,**
Greek Grammar for Schools, etc. New York.*
- HAHN, —,**
Greek Testament. Edited by E. Robinson. N. York.*
- HAINE, WILLIAM,**
Hebrew Bible. Edited by J. Jaquett. N. York.*
- HAINE, WILLIAM,**
Lily's Rules Construed. London, 1708. See W. Ely.
- HAINES, J. S.,**
Chemical Catechism. Philadelphia.*
- HALDEMAN, J. J.,**
Analytic Orthography. Philadelphia.*
- HALDEMAN, S. S.,**
Elements of Latin Pronunciation. Phil. 1831.**
Analytic Orthography. Phila. 1850.*
- HALE, ENOCH,**
A Spelling-Book, or First Part. Northampton, 1709.*
- HALE, NATHAN,**
Epitome of Universal Geography. Bost. 1830.
- HALE, SALMA,**
History of the United States. New York, 1826, (1827,) 1830, 1849. Keene, 1829, 1830, (1831, 1835.) Cooperstown, 1830, 1843. Buffalo, '53.
- HALE, SARAH J.,**
The Bible Reading-Book. Phila. (1854,) 1853.
The School Song-Book. Boston, 1834.*
- HALL, MISS A.,**
Manual of Morals, (Anon.) Andover, 1848.
Boston, 1849, (1863.)
The Literary Reader. Boston, 1850.**
- HALL, CHARLES H.,**
Notes on the Gospel, for Bible Classes, etc., 2 vols. New York, 1837.*
- HALL, JOHN,**
The Primary Reader. Hartford; New York.*
Reader's Manual. Hartford, 1839. 2d edition, 1840, (1841,) 1848.
Reader's Guide. Hartford, 1836. 2d edition, 1837. (3d edition, 1837, 1838, 1839,) 1841.**
- HALL, JOSEPH,**
Guide to the English Language. Utica, 1st edition, 1819.*
- HALL, K.,**
English Method of Bookkeeping. Wakefield, 1810.*
- HALL, S. R.,**
Child's Instructor; or, Lessons on Common Things. Andover, 1832, 1830.*
- HALL, S. R., (continued.)**
The Grammatical Assistant. Springfield, 1832. 2d edition, 1833.
Child's Assistant to the Geography and History of Vermont. Montpelier, 1827, 1831.*
Geography for Children; or, Child's Book of Geography. Springfield, 1832. N. York.*
School Arithmetic. Andover, 1836.
Arithmetical Manual. Andover, 1835.*
- HALL, S. R., & A. R. BAKER,**
School History of the United States. (Boston, 1836, 1843.) Andover, 1830. (Philadelphia.)
- HALL, T. G.,**
Outlines of Astronomy. London, 14th ed. 1854.
Same. Ed. by C. List. Philadelphia, 1847.*
- HALL, WILLIAM,**
Encyclopedia of English Grammar. Ohio, 1850.*
- HALLIWELL, —,**
Rara Mathematica. London, 1811.*
- HALLOCK, EDWARD J.,**
Grammar of the English Language. N. York, 1st edition, 1842, (1852.)
- HALLOWELL, BENJAMIN,**
Key to Ryan's Bonnycastle's Mensuration. Philadelphia, 1847.*
- HALLWORTH, THOMAS,**
Efficacious Method in History and Chronology. New York, 1824.
Same — applied to General Ancient History. New York, 1824.*
Same — applied to Sacred History. N. York, 1824.*
Same — applied to History of United States. New York, 1824.*
- Rational Mnemonics.** New York, 1815.
Outlines of Geography, simplified, etc. New York, 1846.*
- HALSEY, —,**
History.*
- HAMEL, NICHOLAS,**
Grammatical Exercises in French. London, 6th edition, 1800.
- HAMILTON, G.,**
Rudiments of Animal Physiology. Edited by Reese. Philadelphia, 1846.*
Rudiments of Vegetable Physiology. Edited by Reese. Philadelphia, 1846.
Elements of Animal and Vegetable Physiology. Edited by Reese. New York, 1849.*
- HAMILTON, JAMES,**
Perrin's Fables, French and English. London, 6th edition, 1858.
Campe's Robinson der Jüngere. Edinb. 1827.
St. John's Gospel in Italian. 2d edition. Edinburgh, 1827.
Classics, with translations. See T. Clark.
- HAMILTON, HUGH,**
Conic Sections. London, 1773.*
- HAMILTON, H. P.,**
Analytic Geometry. Cambridge (Eng.), 1823.*
- HAMILTON, J. A.,**
Wilhem's Method of Teaching Singing. New York. n.d.
- Preceptor for the Violoncello.** Bost.; N. York.*
- HAMILTON, ROBERT,**
Introduction to Merchandise. Edinburgh, 1777.*
- HAMILTON, SIR WILLIAM,**
Philosophy. Ed. by O. W. Wight. N. Y. 1853.*
Lectures on Metaphysics and Logic. Edited by Mansell and Veitch. 2 vols. Boston, 1830.
- HAMILTON, W., & S. M. IRVIN,**
An Ioway Grammar. Ioway and Sac Mission. I. T., 1848.*
An Elementary Book of the Ioway Language. I. and S. Mission, 1843.*
- HAMLIN, LORENZO F.,**
English Grammar in Lectures. (Schenectady, 1831.) Boston, 1832. New York, (1831, ster. edition, 1832, 1833. Brattleboro', 1833.**
- HAMMOND, NATHANIEL,**
Elements of Algebra. Lond. 4th edition, 1772.

- HAMMOND, ———**,
Book-keeping, etc. See *Potter & Hammond*.
- HAMMOND, SAMUEL**,
English Grammar. London, 1744.*
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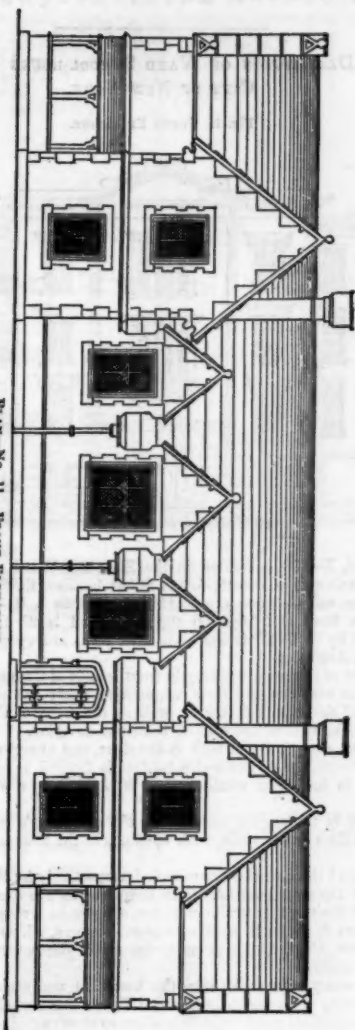
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KNELLER HALL TRAINING SCHOOL, ENGLAND.

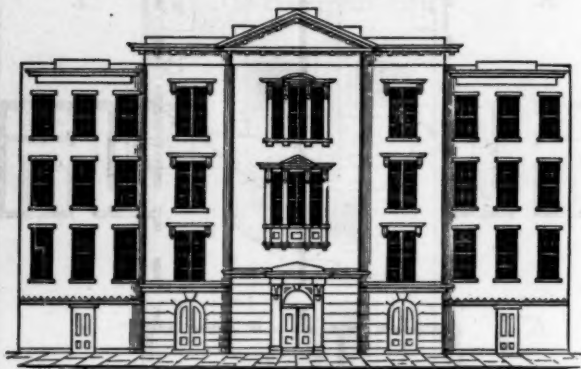
PLAN—No. 11. FRONT ELEVATION.



IX. SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE.

PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF WARD SCHOOL-HOUSE No. 30, IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Fig. 1. FRONT ELEVATION.



Ward School, No. 30, is located in the Sixteenth Ward of the City of New York, on the north side of Twenty-fourth Street, between the Seventh and Eighth Avenues. The school-house, represented in Figures 1, 2, 3, 4, and completed in 1852, has a front of 54 feet on the street, and is 95 feet deep, with side wings, each 18 by 25 feet. It was built after plans and specifications drawn by T. B. Jackson, Architect.

The basement of the main building in front is built of Connecticut brown stone, as are also the windows and door trimmings, finely cut and polished. The front and side of the main building, as well as the front of the wings, are built with smooth brick, painted and sanded brown-stone color.

The basement story is 8 feet high in the clear, and except such portions as are used for class-rooms, stairs, water-closets, &c., is flagged so as to afford a shelter for the pupils in inclement weather, and is divided by a wall to separate the sexes.

The building is thoroughly warmed by six of Culver's patent furnaces, and ventilated with flues in the walls, with openings at the floor and ceiling in each room.

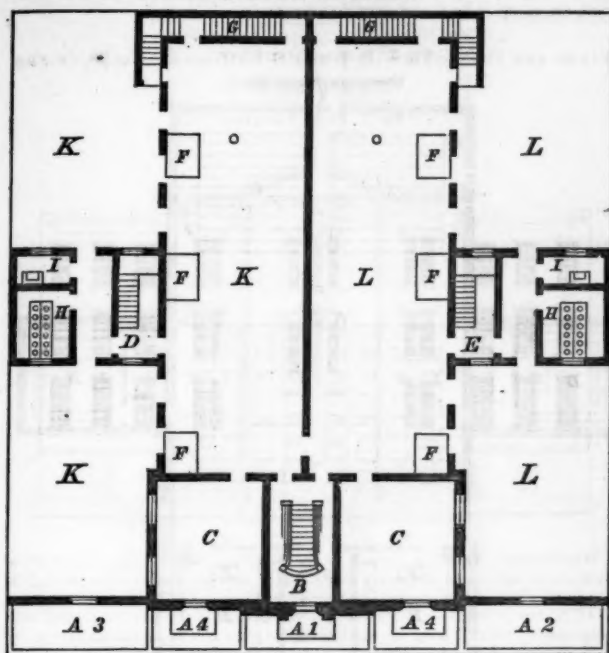
The second and third stories are occupied respectively by the female and male departments of the upper school. The large rooms are used to assemble the whole school at the opening in the morning, and are so arranged that, by closing the sliding doors they can be used as separate rooms, which, together with the other class-rooms, afford ample accommodations for the several classes pursuing their different studies.

The croton water is brought into the basement and each story of the main building, and every convenience is provided for comfort and cleanliness.

The stair-cases afford ample egress, and are so constructed as to provide against all accidents, and the doors are hung so as to swing outwards.

The windows have inside folding blinds.

FIG. 2. PLAN OF BASEMENT.



A 1—Entrance for teachers and visitors.

A 2—Entrance for girls.

A 3—Entrance for boys.

A 4—Entrance to rooms C.

B—Principal stair-case, constructed with one wide center flight, and two side flights leading to the top story.

C—Rooms which were intended as vestibules, but have been made into class-rooms, and fitted up with seats.

D—Boys' stairs.

E—Girls' stairs.

F—Culver's furnaces for heating the building.

G—Stairs to primary department for children in the gallery.

H—Children's water-closets.

I—Teacher's water-closets.

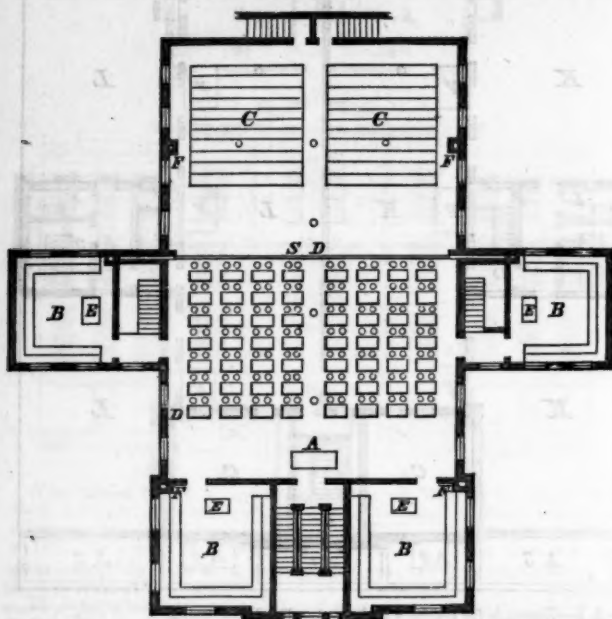
K—Boys' play-ground.

L—Girls' play-ground.



The first floor, divided by folding doors into two large rooms and four class-rooms, are occupied by the primary department.

Fig. 3. PLAN OF FIRST STORY.

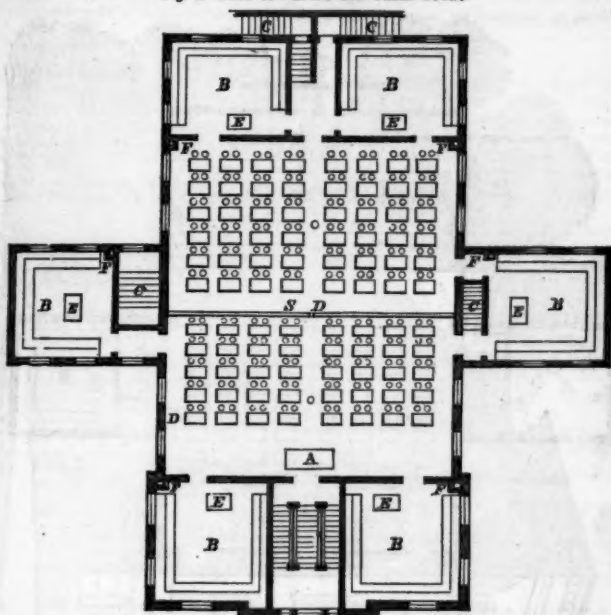


- A—Principal's desk.
 B—Class-rooms, fitted up with a platform 2 feet 6 inches wide, running round three sides of the room, and two rows of benches.
 C—Galleries for small children.
 D—Desks in principal school-room.
 E—Teacher's tables in class-rooms.
 F—Furnace registers for warm air.

No. 3. ROSS' PRIMARY DOUBLE DESK AND CHAIRS.



Fig. 4. PLAN OF SECOND AND THIRD STORY.



A—Principal's desk. B—Class-rooms, fitted up in the same manner as described in the primary department. C—Stairs to yards. D—Desks in principal school-rooms. E—Teacher's tables in class-rooms. F—Furnace registers, where the warm air is admitted in the rooms.

No. 6. ROSS' PRIMARY DOUBLE DESK AND CHAIR.





PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF WARD SCHOOL, No. 29, IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Ward School, No. 29, is situated on the southeast corner of North Moore and Varick Streets, in the Fifth Ward of the City of New York. The school-house, represented in Figures 1, 2, 3, was erected in 1852, after designs and specifications by T. B. Jackson, Esq., Architect, New York, to accommodate a primary department of 500 pupils, between the ages of four and eight years; and two departments, one for 500 girls, between the ages of eight and fourteen, and one for the same number of boys, of the same age. The girls enter on North Moore Street, and the boys on Varick Street.

The new building has a front on North Moore Street of 75 feet, and on Varick Street of 87 feet. The basement, ante-bases, and window trimmings are of Connecticut free-stone, cut in the finest manner; and the brickwork is painted and sanded brown-stone color.

The basement, the floor of which is one foot above the level of the side walk, is ten feet high in the clear, and, except such portions as are used for furnaces, committee room, library, &c., is appropriated to a play-ground, for the pupils, and is divided by a wall to separate the sexes, affording a shelter in unclouded weather.

The first floor is 14 feet high in the clear, and is fitted up into a large school-room, 70 feet by 76, with infant class-rooms, for the primary department, and will accommodate over 500 pupils.

The second and third stories, each 14 feet high, are divided in a similar manner, the former to accommodate 300 girls, and the latter 300 boys. One of the class-rooms on each floor is fitted up with seats and desks, to accommodate an advanced class of pupils.

The building is warmed by three of Culver's Furnaces, placed in the basement; and each school-room and class-room is ventilated by one or more flues, carried up in the walls, with openings at the floor and ceilings, controlled by registers, into which the vitiated air escapes. These flues discharge into two larger flues in the attic, which are carried above the roof, and are surmounted by Emerson's Ejectors.

The furniture throughout all the rooms, was manufactured by Joseph L. Ross, of Boston. The desks and seats in the primary department are of four different sizes, and are made after the pattern represented in Figs. 6 and 7, on page 267. The desks and chairs in the two upper rooms, (the wood-work of cherry, and the standards of cast-iron,) are of six different sizes, and are similar to those represented in Fig. 6, on page 237.

Each desk has a cast-iron box, with a lid to receive a glass ink-well.

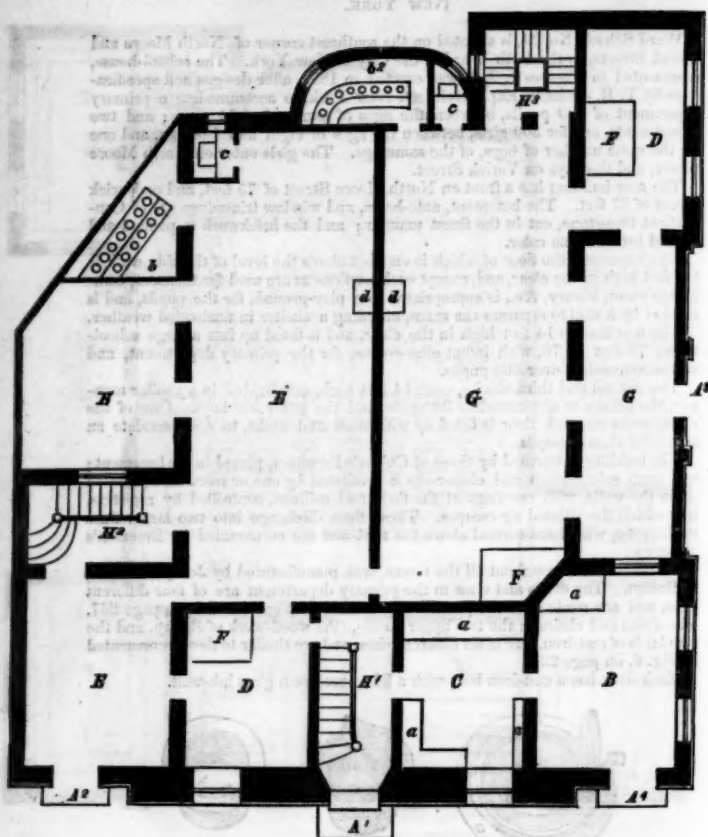


The Croton water is brought into each story; and in the basement every convenience for cleanly habits are provided, such as scrapers, mats, washbasins, towels, brooms, &c.

There are three stair-cases, and each is so constructed as to afford ample egress, and to provide against all accidents; and the doors are hung so as to swing outwards.

The windows are furnished with inside blinds, having revolving slats, so that the amount of light can be easily regulated.

Fig. 2. BASEMENT.



A, 1—Teachers and visitors' entrance.

A, 2—Girls' entrance.

A, 3—Boys' entrance.

B—Committee room.

C—Library.

D—Furnace rooms.

E—Girls' vestibule and play-ground.

F—Culver's furnaces.

G—Boys' play-ground.

H, 1—Teachers' and visitors' stair-case.

H, 2—Girls' stair-case.

H, 3—Boys' stair-case.

a, a, a—Book-cases.

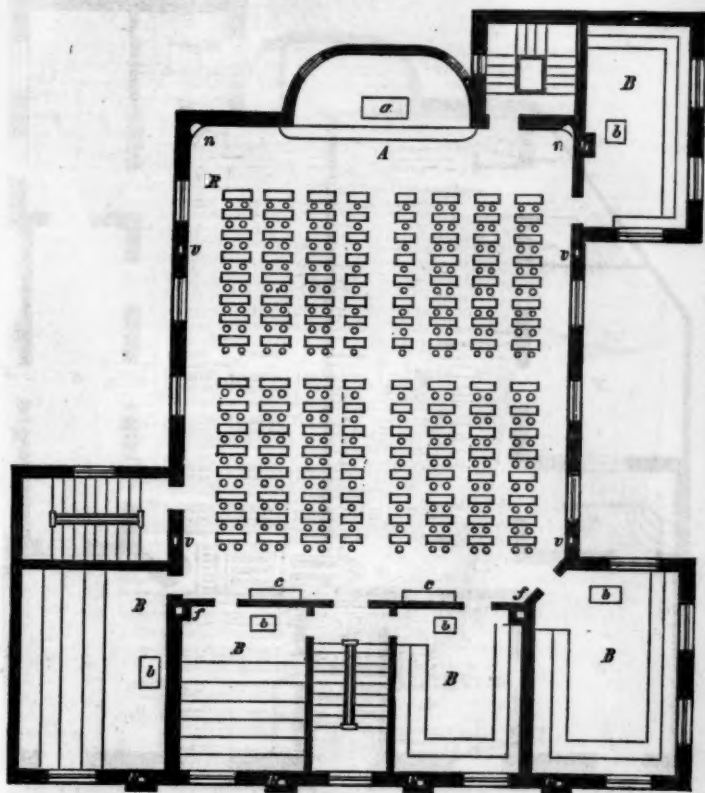
b, b—Water-closets.

C, C—Teachers' closets.

d, d—Croton water, with conveniences for drinking, and cleanliness.

The three stories of the building above the basement are each divided into one large school-room, and five recitation rooms.

Fig. 3. PRIMARY DEPARTMENT.



A—Large school-room, with Rose' desks.

B—Recitation or class-rooms, fitted up with platforms, and two rows of benches running round three sides of each room.

a—Principal's desk in the alcove, the floor of which is raised 16 inches above the floor of the school-room.

The Female and Male Departments, fitted up in the same manner, with the exception of the N. W. class-rooms, which have desks to accommodate an advanced class.

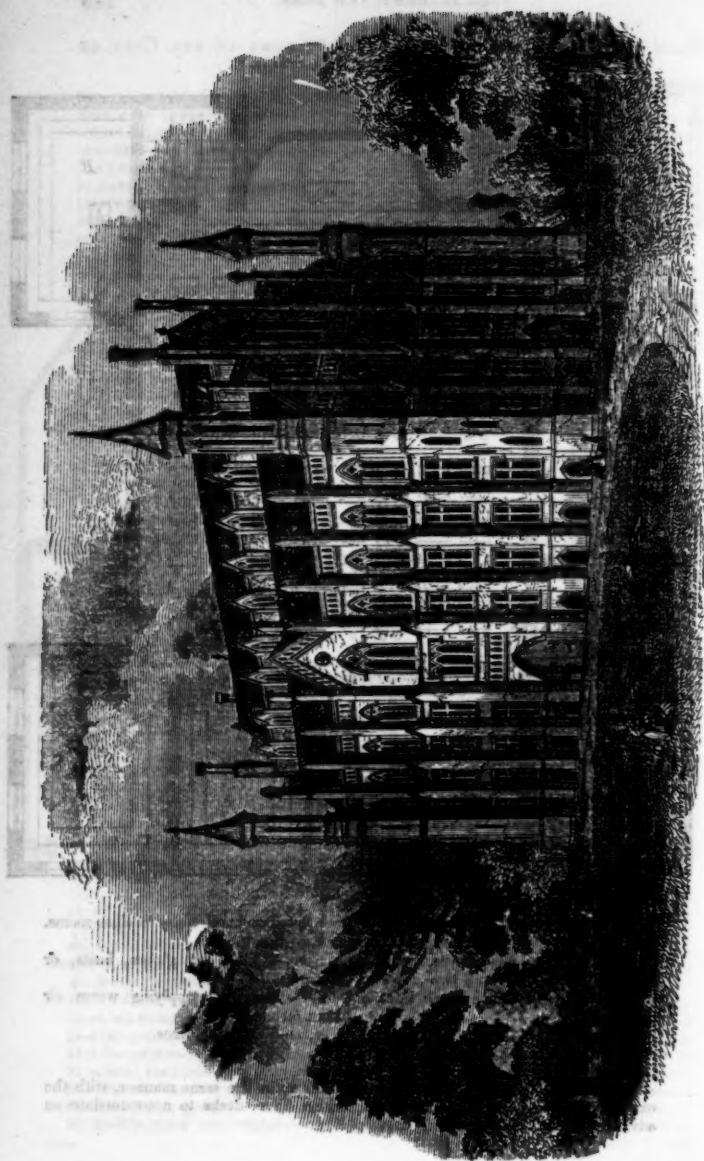
b, b—Teachers' tables in class-rooms.

c, c—Book-cases.

n, n—Niches for globes, busts, or statues.

f, f—Registers, supplying warm air from furnaces.

v, v—Ventilation flues.



PLAN AND DESCRIPTION OF THE FREE ACADEMY IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The Free Academy is situated on the S. E. corner of Twenty-third street and Lexington avenue, in the upper part of the city, being convenient of access from all the great thoroughfares. The style of architecture, in which the building is erected, is the same as that of the town halls and colleges of the 14th century, in Europe. This style attained its greatest perfection in the Low Countries, and especially in Belgium, which at that period was the great seat of learning, science and the arts, as well as the great centre of the commercial enterprise of Europe. It was the opinion of the architect, therefore, apart from the economy in construction, of the Gothic style, when properly managed, that this style would be peculiarly appropriate for the High School of the city of New York, and was also well adapted to the materials of which it was proposed to construct the building, many of the old halls and colleges being built of brick. The architect, Mr. Renwick, of New York, in a letter to the President of the Board of Education, remarks,

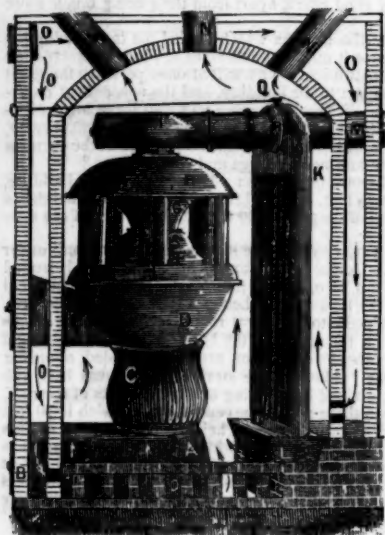
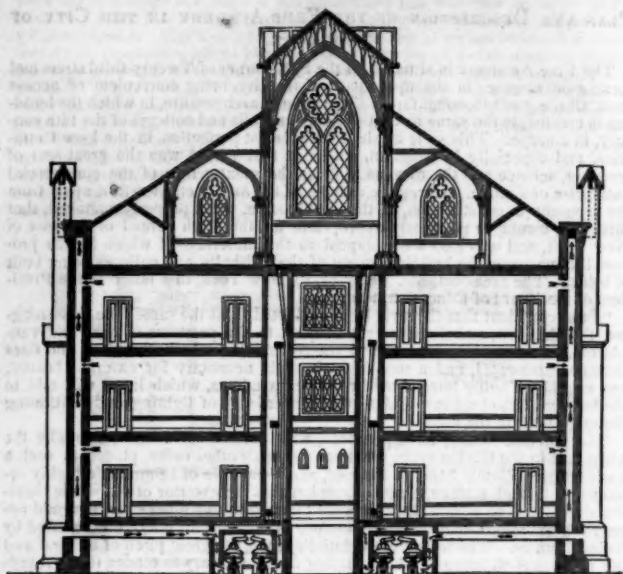
"I am confident that the style I have adopted is, at the same time the strongest, the cheapest, and the one best adapted to the purposes of heat and ventilation, being the only one, except the Norman, in which chimneys and flues become ornamental, and a roof of high pitch, necessary for external beauty, and capable of being intersected by dormer windows, which latter will add to the beauty of the building and to the convenience of lighting and ventilating the great hall, in the roof.

"As you (the Board) have proposed, with perfect correctness, to make the great hall in the Gothic style, for it can be in no other order, placed in such a position immediately beneath the roof, and is capable of being made highly ornamental in such a place, I was of opinion that the exterior of the whole building should accord with it, as, if it were planned in any other style, it would appear inharmonious, and therefore produce an unpleasant effect on the mind by its incongruity. The height of the building, too, the great pitch of the roof, and the numerous chimneys and ventilating flues necessary to render the arrangement perfect, would entirely preclude the adoption of the Grecian, Roman, or modern Italian styles, with any good effect, apart from their being much more expensive, and less beautiful.

"I have entered at length into the reasons which guided me in the adoption of a style for the building, because it might at first sight appear expensive, and therefore improper for such an institution. You will at once perceive the great strength which the buttresses impart to the building, and the consequent reduction in the thickness of the walls. These buttresses will also serve for ventilating flues, which in such a building should be of large size, in order to prevent, as far as possible, any friction from interfering with the passage of the currents of air, an end which can only be attained by large and smooth flues."

The dimensions of the building are as follows: The length of the building, exclusive of all projections, is 125 feet, and the breadth 80 feet. The height, to the eaves, 65 feet, and to the top of the gable, 100 feet. The height of the towers, 110 feet.

The building is divided into a basement, three stories, and a great hall under the roof. The basement is nine feet in height, and is arched to afford ground for exercise in bad weather. In it, also, are the janitors' lodgings, the chemical laboratory, and the closets for the hats and clothes of the students. The first, second and third stories are divided into four great rooms by two wide, spacious halls, which are carried through the centre of the building longitudinally and transversely. Two of these rooms, on each floor, are again divided, affording smaller rooms for recitation, &c. Above these stories is the great hall, 125 feet long by 60 feet in breadth, divided by the king and queen posts of the roof, which are made ornamental, into three aisles, the centre one of which is 40 feet in height, and the two side aisles each 20 feet in height. The ceiling of this room is of wood immediately under the roof, of which it forms part, and it is ornamented with carved ribs of wood, in the manner of the old college halls at Oxford and Cambridge. It is lighted by windows at the ends and by dormers in the roof, and when finished, will probably be the largest and finest collegiate hall in this country.



- A. Iron or brick ash-pit.
 - B. Ash-pit door.
 - C. Pot, or coal burner, with or without soap-stone lining.
 - D. Fire chamber.
 - E. Lower half of tubular drum.
 - F. Elliptical tubes.
 - G. Upper half of tubular drum.
 - H. Top of tubular drum.
 - I. Cap and smoke-pipe.
 - K. Flat radiator.
 - L. Water basin or evaporator.
 - M. Smoke pipe to chimney.
 - N. Conductors of hot air.
 - N. Cold air conductor and chamber.
 - P. Feed door.
 - Q. Hot air chamber.
 - R. Damper in globe with rod attached.
 - S. Pendulum valve for cleaning.
- + Shows the direction of the currents of hot or cold air.

Fig. 3.—CULVER'S FURNACE.

The mode of warming and ventilating the several apartments of the Free Academy can be easily understood by consulting Figures 2, 3 and 4. Four of Culver's furnaces are set in the basement, as shown in Fig. 3. A large quantity of fresh air from out of doors, after being warmed by these furnaces is carried up to the several stories by pipes in the division walls, (Fig. 2.) and is admitted into the rooms at a convenient point, as indicated in Figures 5 and 6. The air of each room, as it becomes vitiated by respiration, is discharged by openings near the ceiling into the buttresses, which are constructed hollow and finished smooth, so as to constitute large ventilating flues. Each opening is fitted with one of Culver's Ventilators or Registers, with cords attached, by which the capacity of the opening for the discharge of vitiated air can be enlarged and diminished at the pleasure of the teacher. The practical working of the furnaces and flues for ventilation, secures the object aimed at—a genial and pure atmosphere at all times.

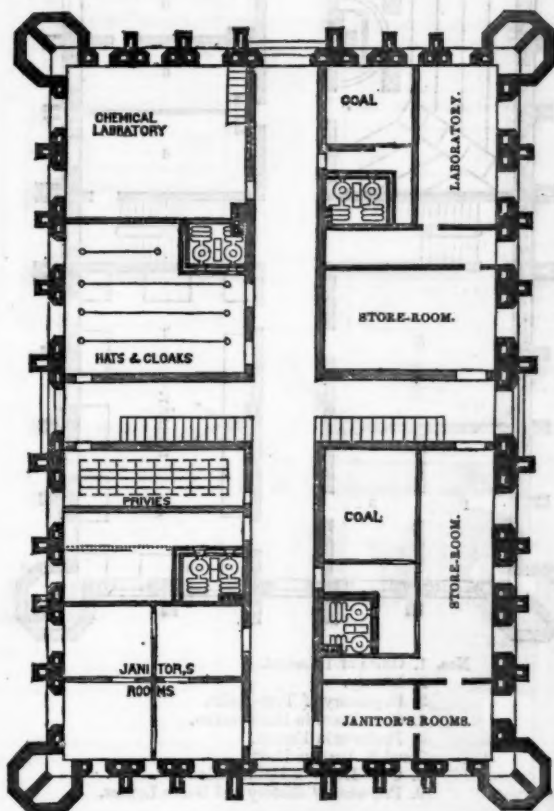
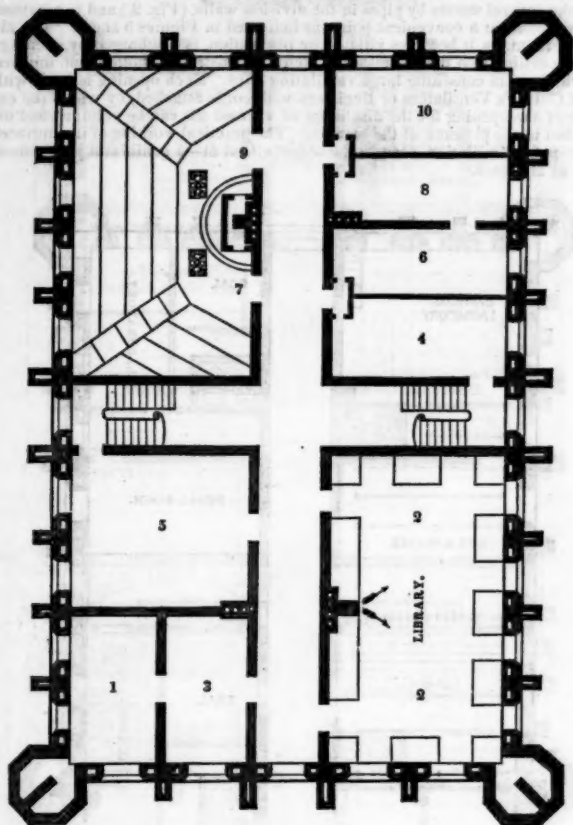


Fig. 3.—BASEMENT FLOOR.

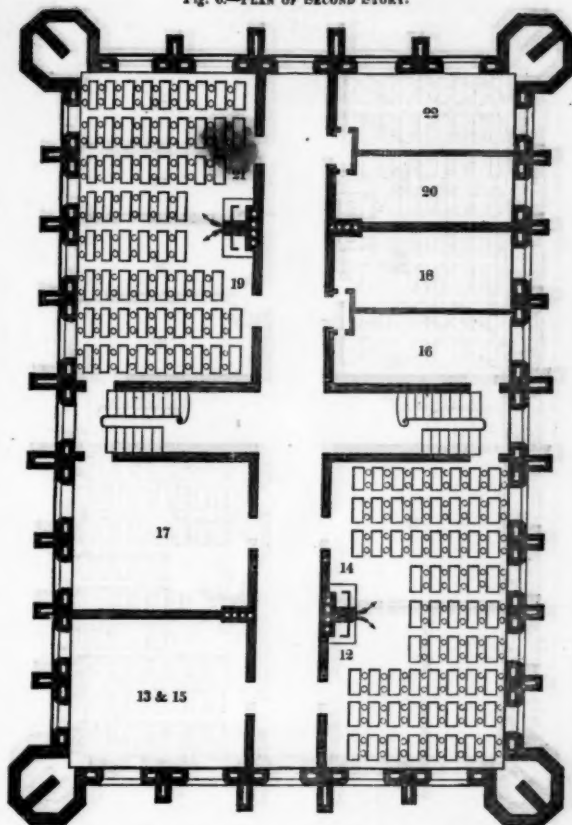
The above cut gives an incorrect view of the exterior of the building, but a good idea of the internal arrangement of the basement story.

Fig. 5.—PLAN OF FIRST STORY.



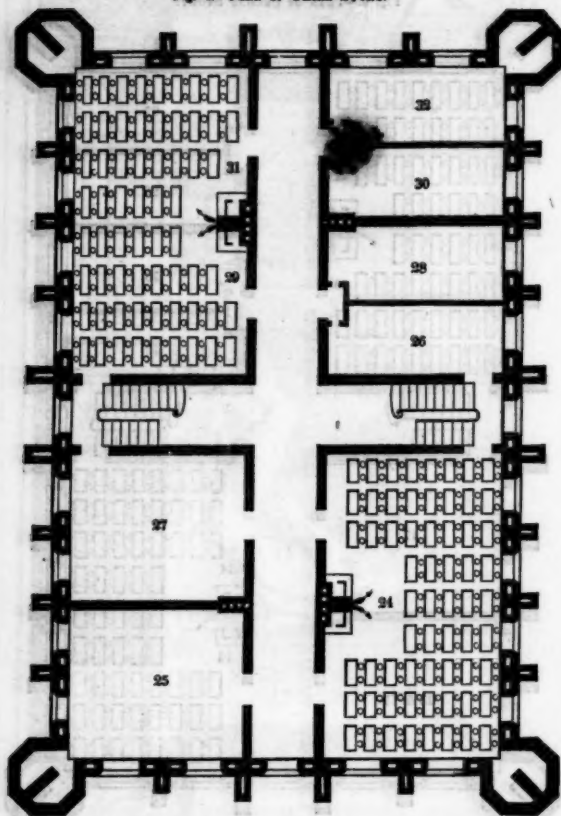
- Nos. 1. Office of Principal.
 2. Library.
 3. Depository of Text-Books.
 4. Class Room in Mathematics.
 6. Professor in French.
 7 and 9. Lecture Room.
 8. Class Room in Mathematics.
 10. Professor of History and Belles Lettres.

Fig. 6.—PLAN OF SECOND STORY.



- Nos. 13 and 15. Professor of Civil Engineering.
 12 and 14. Study Hall.
 16. Class Room for Tutor in Mathematics.
 17. Study Hall.
 18. Class Room for Tutor in Moral Philosophy.
 19 and 21. Drawing Hall.
 20. Professor of Ancient Languages.

Fig. 7.—PLAN OF THIRD STORY.



- Nos. 24. Study Hall.
 25. Professor of Mathematics.
 26. Class Room for Tutor of Moral Philosophy.
 27. Study Hall.
 28. Class Room for Tutor of Rhetoric.
 29 and 31. Study Hall.
 30. Class Room for Tutor of Rhetoric.
 32. Professor of English Literature.

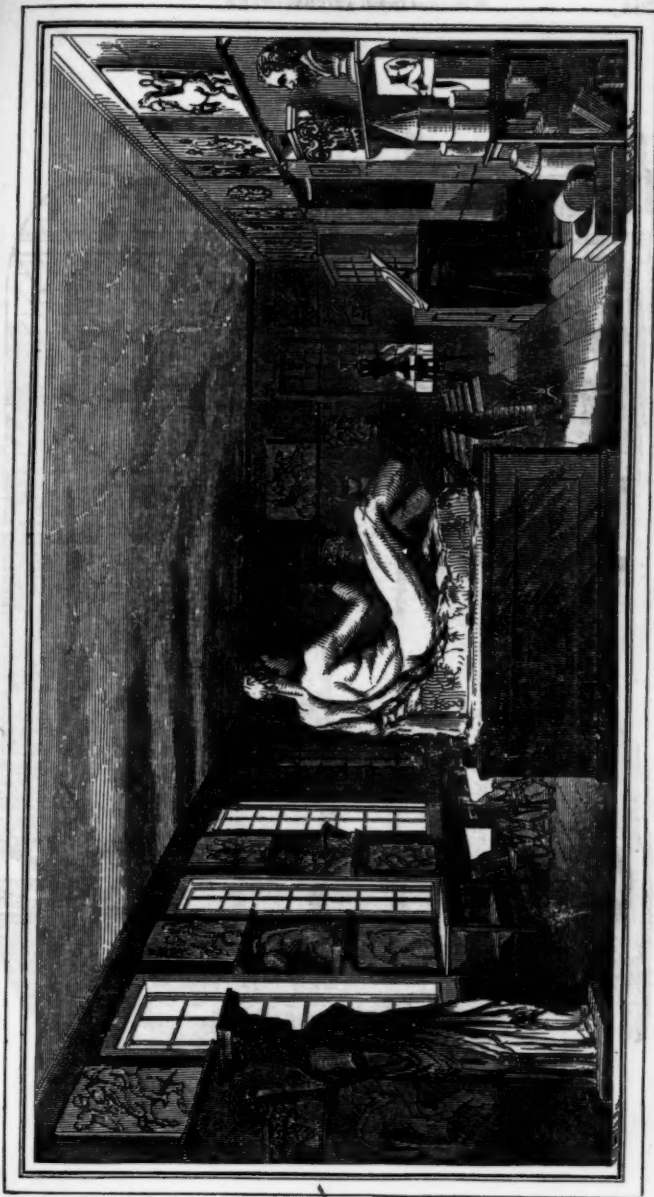
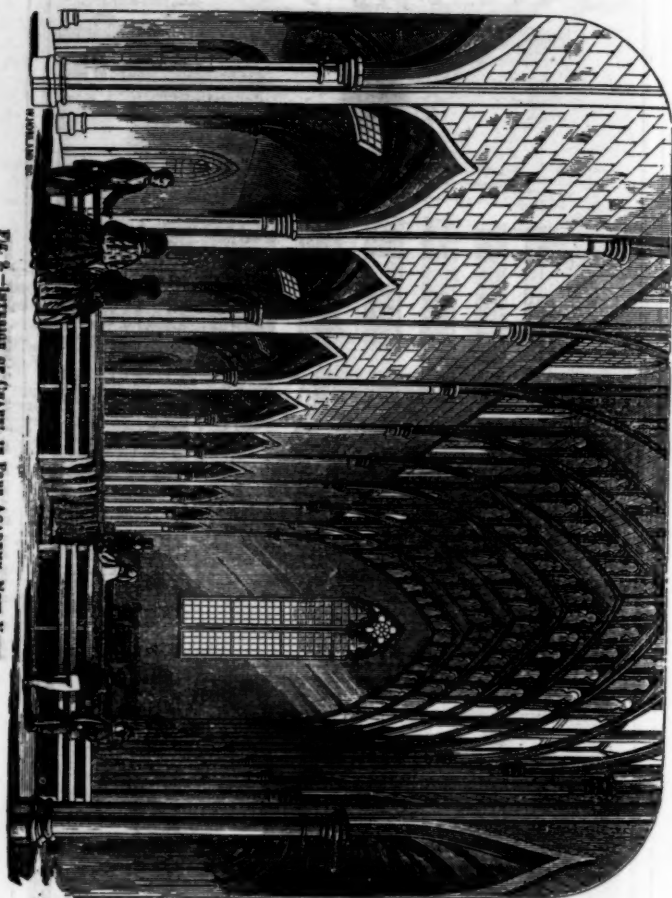


FIG. 3.—ROOM FOR DRAWING IN FREE ACADEMY, NEW YORK.

FIG. 3.—INTERIOR OF CHAPEL IN FREE ACADEMY, NEW YORK.



PLANS AND DESCRIPTION OF THE ACADEMY BUILDING, ROME, N. Y.

We are indebted to Edward Huntington, Esq., for the following plans and description of the new Academy building recently erected in Rome N. Y., under his supervision. The building is 70 feet by 44 feet on the ground.

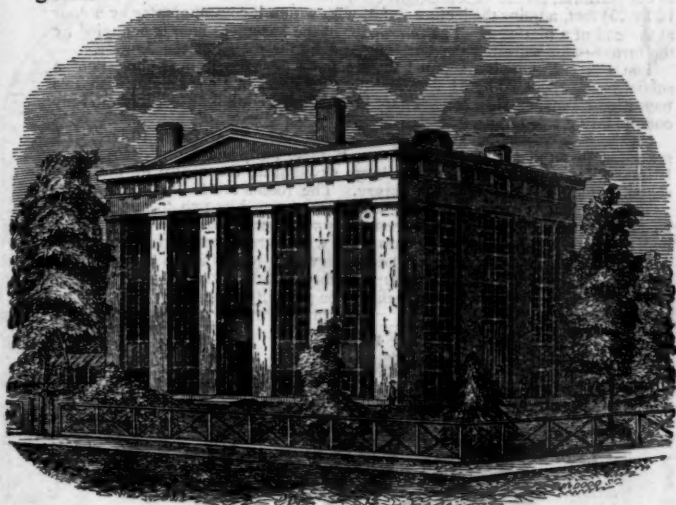
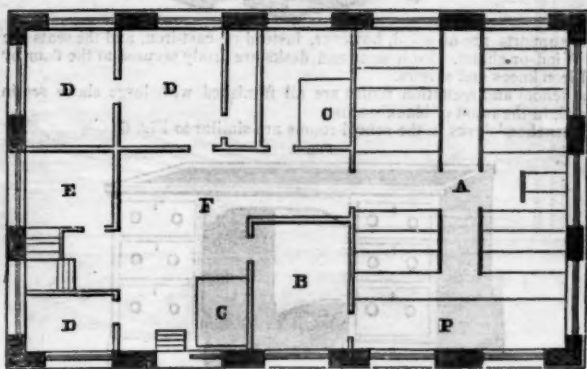


FIG. 2. BASEMENT.



A—Lecture-room and Chapel. B—Laboratory. C, C—Furnaces.
D, D, D—Janitor's rooms. E—Entry. F—Hall.

The building was erected in 1848, on a lot 196 by 170 feet, on the corner of Court and James streets, fronting the public square, and is of brick, 70 by 44 feet on the ground. The basement wall, up to the water table, is of stone, laid in hydraulic cement. The roof is covered with tin, laid in white lead.

The basement, 10 feet high in the clear, contains a lecture-room (which serves also as a chapel,) 26½ by 40 feet, with comfortable seats to accommodate conveniently 200 pupils. The floor descends 2 feet from the rear of the room to the platform, giving 19 feet height immediately in front of it. A laboratory, 12 by 15½ feet, adjoins the lecture-room, with which it communicates by a door at the end of a platform. The remainder of the basement floor is occupied by the furnaces for warming the building, and by the rooms of the Janitor.

The First Floor is occupied by the male department, and consists of a school-room about 30 by 54 feet, and nearly 15 feet in clear height, with two recitation-rooms, entries, &c. There are 62 desks, each four feet long and accommodating two pupils.

On the Second Floor are the girls' school-room, about 28 by 40 feet, with seats for 76 pupils, 2 recitation-rooms, library, hall, and room occupied by Primary department. There is a large skylight in the centre of the girls' school-room, and another in the library. The rooms are 15 feet in height.

The building is thoroughly and uniformly warmed by two furnaces in the basement, and a change of air is secured by ventilators at the top of the rooms, and also near the floor, opening into flues which are carried up in the chimneys. The warmth imparted by the smoke which passes up in the adjoining flues secures a good draft. In the upper story additional means of ventilation are furnished by the skylights, which can be partially opened.

The desks are of varnished cherry, similar in form to Ross's school desk.

FIG. 5.

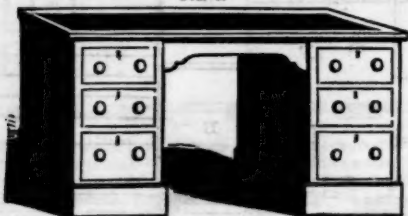


The supports are of wood, however, instead of cast-iron, and the seats are easy Windsor-chairs. Both seats and desks are firmly secured to the floor by small iron knees and screws.

The school and recitation rooms are all furnished with large slates set in the wall, in the room of blackboards.

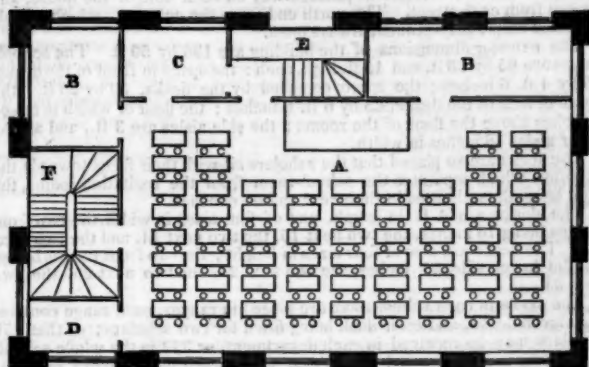
The teachers' desks in the school-rooms are similar to Fig. 6.

FIG. 6.



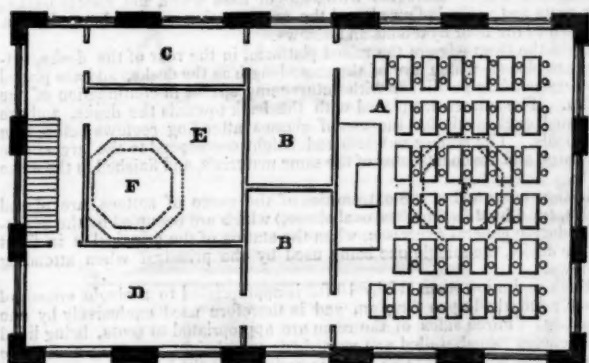
The whole cost of the building, including furnaces, scholars' desks and chairs, slates and inkstands, was about 6,000 dollars.

FIG. 3. PLAN OF FIRST FLOOR.



- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| A—Boys' School-room, with 124 seats. | D—Closet for Apparatus. |
| B, B—Recitation-rooms. | E—Entrance for Boys. |
| C—Dressing-room. | F—Entrance for Girls. |

FIG. 4. PLAN OF SECOND FLOOR.



- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A—Girls' School-room, with 76 seats. | D—Primary Department. |
| B, B—Recitation-rooms. | E—Library, lighted by skylight. |
| C—Dressing-room. | F—Skylight in ceiling. |

PLAN, &c., OF EAST SCHOOL, SALEM, MASS.

The lot on which the house stands extends from Essex street to Bath street.—There is a sufficient passage-way on each side of the house, and access from each street. The north end faces the common, which affords the most ample play-ground, always open.

The exterior dimensions of the building are 136 by 50 ft. The school-rooms are 65 by 36 ft. and 15 ft. high, each: the space in front of the desks, 65 by 4 ft. 6 inches; the space occupied by the desks, 59 by 25 ft.; the space in rear of the desks, 65 by 6 ft. 6 inches; the floor of which is raised 6 inches above the floor of the rooms; the side aisles are 3 ft., and all the other aisles 18 inches in width.

The desks are so placed that the scholars sit with their faces towards the partition which separates the school-room from the recitation rooms, the light being thus admitted in their rear and on one side.

The desks are 4 ft. in length, and of four sizes in width, the two front ranges being 16 inches, the two next 15, the two next 14, and the two next 13. The desks are also of four sizes in height; the two front ranges being, on the lower side, 27 inches, the two next 26, the two next 25, the two next 24.

The desks in each school-room are placed in ranges, each range containing eleven desks, and each desk being fitted for two scholars; so that 176 scholars may be received in each department, or 352 in the whole school. The desks are constructed like tables, with turned legs, narrow rails, inclined top and a shelf beneath. The legs and rails are of birch, stained and varnished, and the tops of cherry, oiled and varnished. The legs are secured in the floor by tenons. The tables of the teachers are constructed and finished like the desks of the scholars.

The chairs are also of four sizes; those in the two front ranges being 12 by 12½ inches in the seat, (i. e. extreme width, the sides being of the usual shape of chairs,) and 16 inches in height, and those in the succeeding ranges being reduced in height in proportion to the desks, and also varying proportionally in the dimensions of the seats.

The chairs are constructed with seats of bass wood, and cherry backs; the seats and backs hollowed, and the seats resting on wooden pedestals, secured to the floor by tenons and screws.

Upon the front edge of the raised platform, in the rear of the desks, settees are placed, which are of the same length as the desks, and are placed in corresponding positions, with intervening spaces in continuation of the aisles. The settees are placed with the back towards the desks, and are designed exclusively for the use of classes attending reviews before the principals. The settees in width and height correspond to the largest size of chairs, and are constructed of the same materials, and finished in the same style.

In the center and at the extremities of the range of settees, are placed tables, (of 4 by 2 ft. 6 inches, oval shape,) which are occupied by the assistants, during general exercises, when the station of the principal is in front of the desks, the middle one being used by the principal when attending reviews.

Each recitation room (18 by 10 ft.) is appropriated to a single course of study, as marked upon the plan, and is therefore used exclusively by one assistant. Three sides of the room are appropriated to seats, being lined with cherry wood, (oiled and varnished) to a height reaching above the heads of the scholars. The lining is projected at the bottom, so as to furnish inclined backs to the seats, which are constructed of cherry wood, 13 inches in width, 2 inches thick, with hollowed top and rounded edge, supported on turned legs, the height being 15½ inches from the top of the seat to the floor. The fourth side of the room, opposite the window, is occupied by a blackboard of 3 ft. in width, which extends across the space upon each side of the door.

All the spaces between the doors and windows upon the four sides of the

school-rooms are occupied by blackboards. In the spaces between the windows upon the rear, recesses have been constructed, which are fitted with book-shelves, and are closed by means of covers in front, which are raised and lowered by weights and pulleys. These covers are blackboards, and are so finished as to represent sunken panels. Drawers are constructed beneath the blackboards to receive the sponges, chalk, &c.

Circular ventilators are placed in the ceiling of each school-room and recitation room; three in each school-room of 3 ft. in diameter, and one in each recitation room of 2 ft. in diameter. These ventilators are solid covers of wood, hung with hinges, over apertures of corresponding size, and raised or lowered by means of cords passing over pulleys, through the ceiling into the room below, the cords terminating in loops, which are fastened to hooks in the side of the room. When the ventilators are raised, the impure air escapes into the garret, the ventilation of which is also provided for by means of the circular windows in the gable ends, which turn on pivots in the center, and are opened or shut by cords passing over pulleys in the same manner as the ventilators.

Each school-room is warmed by a furnace, placed directly under the center of the space in front of the desks, the hot air ascending through a circular aperture of 2 ft. in diameter, which is represented upon the plan. The smoke-pipe, (of galvanized iron) is conducted upward through the center of this aperture, and thence, after passing a considerable distance into the school-room, through one of the recitation rooms into the chimney, which is built in the center of the front wall. The recitation rooms are warmed by means of apertures at the top and bottom respectively of the partitions which separate them from the school-rooms, which being open together, secure a rapid equalization of temperature in all the rooms. These apertures are fitted to be closed, with revolving shutters above, and shutters hung on hinges below.

In the partition wall between the school-rooms, is a clock having two faces, and thus indicating the hour to the occupants in each room. The clock strikes at the end of each half hour. In the ante-rooms, (marked F, F, on the plan Fig. 1) are hooks for caps, overcoats, &c. In each of these rooms, also, there is a pump and sink.

In the lower story, there are two primary school-rooms 36½ ft. by 24½ ft., each seating 60 children. Each child has a chair firmly fixed to the floor, but no desk. In the rear there is an appropriate shelf for books, for each pupil, numbered to correspond with the number on the chair. In front of the school, there is a blackboard occupying the distance between the doors, and a desk, at which the several classes stand in succession, and copy appropriate exercises on the slate from the blackboard.

For this school-house, with all its completeness of arrangements and regulations, the city of Salem is indebted mainly to the indefatigable exertions of the late Mayor, the Hon. Stephen C. Phillips. During the three years of his administration, every school-house was repaired or rebuilt, and all the schools brought under an admirable system.

On leaving his office, in 1842, he gave to the city for school purposes, his salary for three years, amounting to \$2,400, which has been applied to repairing and refurnishing the High School building, which is now a monument of his taste and munificence.

The High School, and one of the new primary schools, are furnished with "Kimball's Improved School Chair," which for strength, comfort, and style of finish, is superior to any other now before the public.



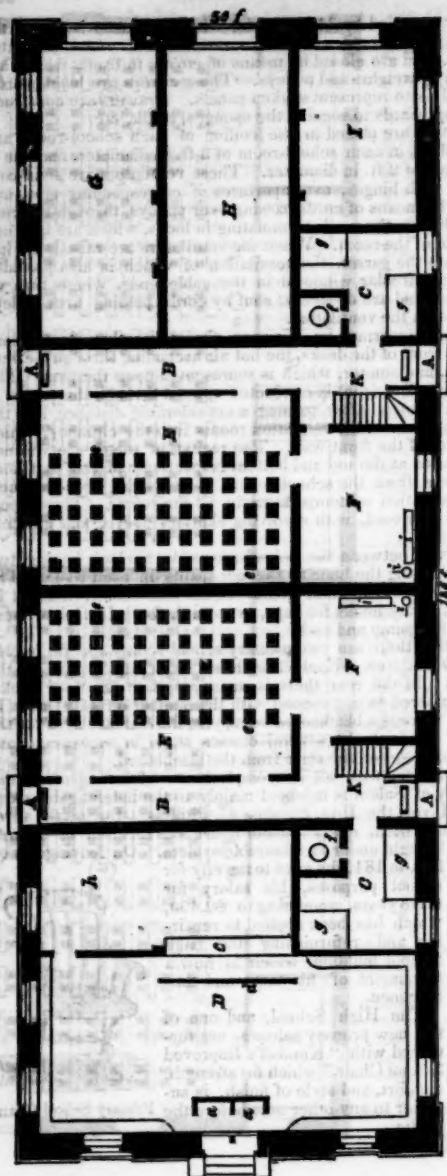
High School Chair.



Primary School Chair.

FIGURE 1 EAST SCHOOLHOUSE, SALEM. First Story.

[Scale 1/80 inch to a foot.]



A, A, A.—School entrances.

B, B.—Passages, 5 feet wide.

C, C.—Furnace and fuel rooms, 15 by 13 feet.

E, E.—Primary schools, 36.6 by 24.3 feet.

e.—Seats in primary schoolrooms.

F, F.—Anti-rooms, 15 by 19 feet.

K, K.—Stairs to second story.

C, C.—Furnaces.

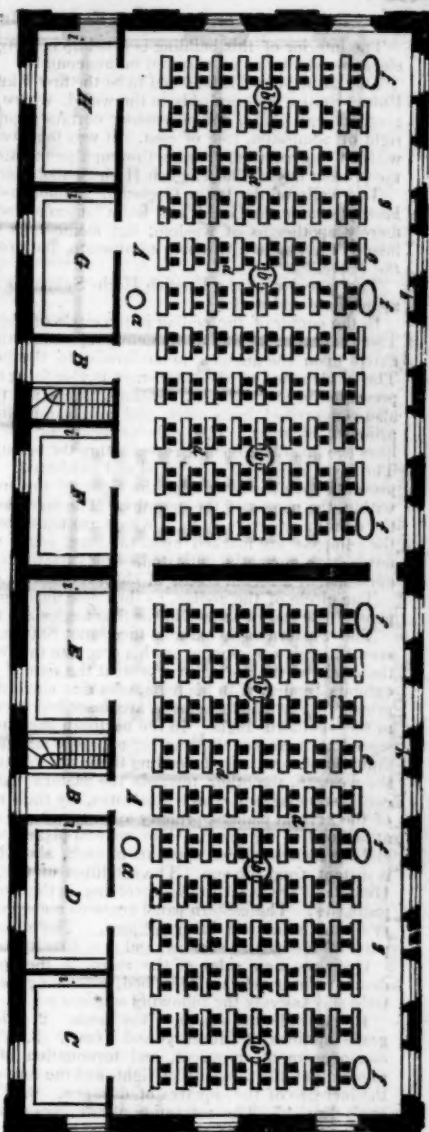
g, g.—Fuel and ash bins.

i, i, i.—Pumps and sinks

The other apartments in the lower story are occupied for various city purposes, which it is unnecessary here to specify.

FIGURE 2. EAST SCHOOLHOUSE, SALEM. Second Story.

(Scale 1-30 feet to a foot)



- A, A—Schoolrooms, 65 by 36 feet each.
- B, B—Entries and stairs from the first story.
- C—Recitation room for reading, first course, 17 by 10 feet.
- D— " " " grammar, " 18 by 10 "
- E— " " " reading, second course, 19 by 10 feet.
- F— " " " arithmetic, " 19 by 10 "
- G— " " " geography, 18 by 10 feet.
- H— " " " arithmetic, first course, 17 by 10 feet

- a, a—Hot air entrances.
- b, b, &c.—Ventilators, 3 feet diameter, in the upper ceilings of the room.
- c, c—Desks.
- d, d—Seats.
- e, e—Settees.
- f, f, &c.—Tables for teachers.
- g, g—Platform, raised 8 inches above floor of rooms
- h, h—Recesses, containing books.
- i, i—Seats occupying three sides of recitation rooms

DESCRIPTION OF LATIN AND ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOLS, SALEM.

The interior of this building is fitted up in a style of ornamental and useful elegance which has no parallel in this country.

The Latin School is believed to be the first FREE SCHOOL established in the United States, and probably in the world, where every person within certain geographical limits, and possessing certain requisites of study, has an equal right of admission, free of cost. It was founded in 1637, and has continued, without interruption, giving a thorough preparation to students for college, to the present day. The English High School was established in 1827.

The walls of the Latin Grammar School are enriched and adorned with inscriptions in the Greek and Latin language and character. These are not merely apothegms of wisdom, but mementoes of duty; they are fitted to inspire the pupils with noble sentiments, and are the appropriate "*Genius of the Place.*"

The interior of the English High School is adorned in a manner no less appropriate and useful.

In the center of the ceiling is the circle of the zodiac, 29 feet in diameter. The ventilator, 3½ feet in diameter, represents the sun, the spots being designated upon the nucleus in conformity to the latest telescopic observation. The divergence of the solar rays is also fully exhibited. The earth is represented in four different positions, indicating the four seasons. The moon also is described in its orbit, and its position so varied as to exhibit its four principal changes. The globular figure of the earth is clearly shown, and lines are inscribed upon it representing the equator, tropics, and polar circles. The hour lines are also marked and numbered. The border of the circle represents upon its outer edge the signs of the zodiac, with their names, and within, the names of the months. The signs are divided into degrees, and the months into days, both of which are numbered. The thirty-two points of the compass are marked upon the inner edge, the true north and magnetic north both correctly indicated,—the variation of the needle having been ascertained by a recent series of observations.

The circle of the zodiac, as thus described, being enclosed within a square panel, the exterior spaces in the four angles are filled up as follows:

The western angle exhibits the planet Saturn, with his rings and belts, as seen through a telescope, and his true size in proportion to the sun, supposing the circle of the zodiac to represent the size of the sun. The eastern angle exhibits Jupiter, with his belts, of a size similarly proportionate. The other primary planets and the moon are described according to their relative sizes, in the southern angle. In the northern angle is a succession of figures, designed to represent the varying apparent size of the sun, as seen from the different planets. In the ceiling there are also two oblong panels, one towards the western, the other towards the eastern extremity. The western panel contains a diagram, which illustrates, by their relative position, the distance of the several planets, primary and secondary, from the sun, which is placed at one end of the panel. The several planets are designated by their signs, and the figures, placed opposite to each, show how many millions of miles it is distant from the sun. The satellites of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and Herschel, are described as revolving in their orbits around their respective primaries. The eastern panel contains a diagram, which illustrates the theory of the solar and lunar eclipses. The moon is represented in different parts of the earth's shadow, and also directly between the earth and the sun.

Upon the four sides of the room, in the space above the windows and doors, eight panels are described, containing as many diagrams, which illustrate successively the following subjects:—

1. The different phases of the moon.
2. The apparent, direct, and retro grade motions of Mercury and Venus.
3. The moon's parallax.
4. The commencement, progress, and termination of a solar eclipse.
5. The diminution of the intensity of light, and the force of attraction in proportion to the increase of the squares of distance.
6. The transit of Venus over the sun's disc.
7. The refraction of the rays of light by the atmosphere, causing the sun or other celestial bodies, to appear above the horizon when actu-

ally below it. 8. The theory of the tides, giving distinct views of the full and neap tide, as caused by the change of position and the relative attraction of the sun and moon.

The two small panels over the entrance doors represent, respectively, the remarkable comets of 1680 and 1811, and the theory of cometary motion as described in the plates attached to Blunt's "Beauty of the Heavens."

The diagram in the large panel upon the north side of the recitation platform represents the relative height of the principal mountains and the relative length of the principal rivers on the globe. The mountains and rivers are all numbered, and scales of distance are attached, by which the heights and lengths can be readily ascertained. The relative elevation of particular countries, cities and other prominent places, the limits of perpetual snow, of various kinds of vegetation, &c., are distinctly exhibited. This diagram is a copy of that contained in Tanner's Atlas.

The diagram in the corresponding panel on the south side of the recitation platform represents a geological section, the various strata being systematically arranged and explained by an index.

The space between the windows upon the north and south sides of the room are occupied by inscriptions in which the diameter, hourly motion, sidereal period, and diurnal rotation of the several primary planets and the earth's moon, are separately stated, according to calculations furnished for the purpose by Professor Peirce, of Cambridge. The hourly motion and sidereal period of the four asteroids are also stated in corresponding inscriptions upon the western side. The diameter and rotation of the sun are inscribed upon the edge of the circular recess beneath the ventilator.

Over the frontispiece, which surmounts the recess upon the teacher's rostrum, is a beautifully executed scroll bearing the inscription,

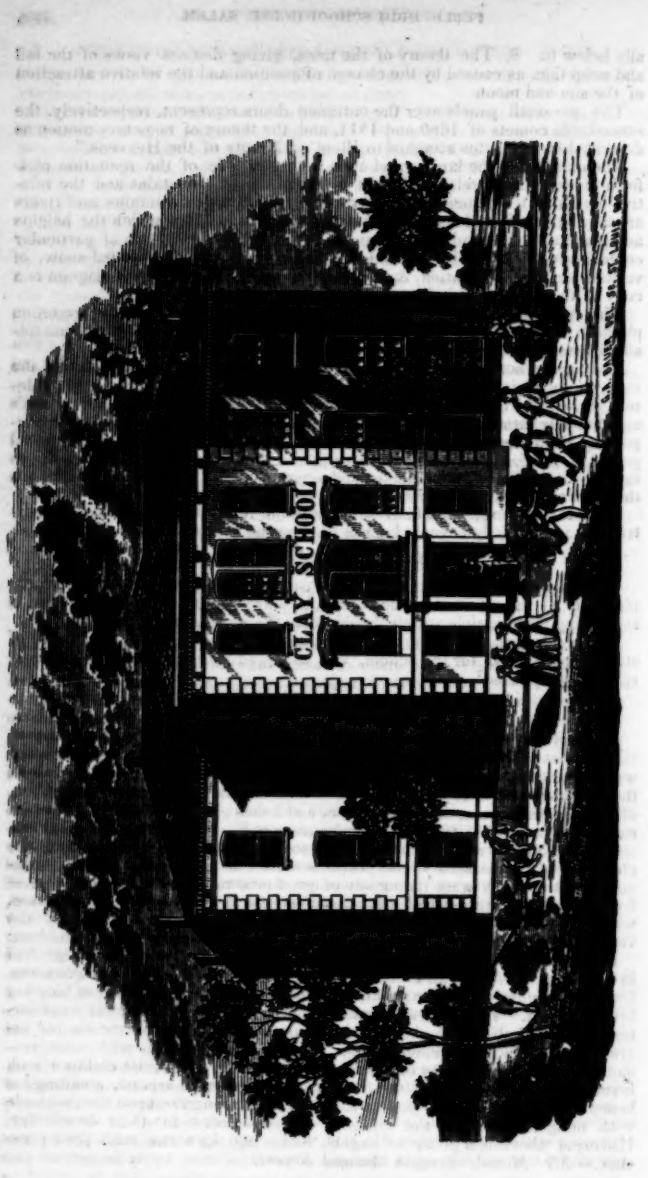
"ORDER IS HEAVEN'S FIRST LAW."

This motto may be regarded as equally appropriate, whether viewed as explanatory of the celestial phenomena which are figured upon the walls, or as suggesting the principle which should guide the operations of the school.

The clock is placed within the recess, upon the wall of which the course of studies prescribed for the school, and arranged into two divisions, is conspicuously inscribed.

Many of the charity schools of Holland contain paintings of no inconsiderable excellence and value. In Germany, where every thing, (excepting war and military affairs,) is conducted on an inexpensive scale, the walls of the school-rooms were often adorned with cheap engravings and lithographs, of distinguished men, of birds, beasts, and fishes;—and, in many of them, a cabinet of natural history had been commenced. And throughout all Prussia and Saxony, a most delightful impression was left upon my mind by the character of the persons whose portraits were thus displayed. Almost without exception, they were likenesses of good men rather than of great ones,—frequently of distinguished educationists and benefactors of the young, whose countenances were radiant with the light of benevolence, and the very sight of which was a moral lesson to the susceptible hearts of children.

In the new building for the "poor school" at Leipais, there is a large hall in which the children all assemble in the morning for devotional purposes. Over the teacher's desk, or pulpit, is a painting of Christ in the act of blessing little children. The design is appropriate and beautiful. Several most forlorn-looking, half-naked children stand before him. He stretches out his arms over them, and blesses them. The mother stands by with an expression of rejoicing, such as only a mother can feel. The little children look lovingly up into the face of the Saviour. Others stand around, awaiting his benediction. In the back-ground are aged men, who gaze upon the spectacle with mingled love for the children and reverence for their benefactor. Hovering above is a group of angels, hallowing the scene with their presence.—*Mr Mann's Seventh Annual Report.*



XL NEW YORK SOCIETY OF TEACHERS.

THE SOCIETY OF TEACHERS OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK FOR BENEVOLENT AND LITERARY PURPOSES was formed prior to the fourth of April, 1811, on which day it was clothed with corporate powers by the Legislature of the State, and recognized as having the following officers, viz :

ANDREW SMITH, *President.*

GEORGE IRONSIDE, *Vice-President.*

EDWARD SHEPHERD, *Treasurer.*

WILLIAM GRAY, *Secretary.*

WILLIAM PAYNE, ALBERT PICKET, and ISAAC GRIMSHAW, *Assistants.*

An Act to Incorporate the Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes. Passed April 4, 1811.

Whereas a number of the teachers of the city and county of New York have formed themselves into a Society or Association for the relief and benefit of decayed teachers and their families, the widows and children of deceased teachers, and for the discussion of literary subjects and the promotion of science among the members of the Society, under the name and title of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and the said Society have, by their petition presented to the Legislature, prayed to be incorporated; and whereas the views of the said petitioners appear to be laudable and worthy of legislative patronage and assistance; therefore,

1. *Be it enacted by the People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly,* That such persons as now are, or hereafter may, become members of the aforesaid Society or Association, shall be, and hereby are ordained, constituted, and appointed a body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York, for Benevolent and Literary Purposes;" and that by that name, they and their successors shall and may have succession, and shall be in law capable of suing and being sued, pleading and being impleaded, defending and being defended in all courts and places whatsoever, in all manner of action and actions, suits, matters, complaints, and causes whatsoever; and that they and their successors may have and use a common seal, and may change and alter the same at their pleasure; and that they and their successors, by the name and style of "The Society of Teachers of the City of New York for Benevolent and Literary Purposes," shall be capable in law of purchasing, holding, and conveying any real or personal estate for the use of the said incorporation, *Provided*, that the value of such real and personal estate shall not exceed at any time the sum of two thousand dollars per annum.

2. *And be it further enacted,* That for the better carrying into effect the objects of the said corporation, there shall be a standing committee consisting of seven members, whereof the President, Vice-President, Treasurer, and Secretary of the Society shall always be a part, who shall hold their offices for one year, or until others shall be elected in their room; and such elections shall be held at such times and places as the said corporation shall, by by-laws, from time to time appoint and direct, and that all the aforesaid officers shall be elected by

ballot, by a majority of the members present at such election; and that in case any vacancy or vacancies shall happen in any of the said offices by death, resignation, or otherwise, such vacancy or vacancies shall and may be filled up for the remainder of the year in which they shall respectively happen, by a special election for that purpose, to be held in the same manner as the said annual elections, at such times and places as shall be appointed by the by-laws of the said corporation.

3. *And be it further enacted*, That Andrew Smith shall be the first president, George Ironside the first vice-president, Edward Shepherd the first treasurer, William Gray the first secretary, William Payne, Albert Pickett, and Isaac Grimshaw the first assistants, forming the first standing committee, to hold their offices respectively for one year, or until others shall be duly elected in their room.

4. *And be it further enacted*, That the said corporation, or their successors, shall have power from time to time to make and establish by-laws, and to alter and amend the same as they from time to time shall judge proper, for appointing the times and places of electing officers, for the admission of new members of the said corporation, and the terms, conditions, and manner of such admission, and the amount of the sums which each member shall contribute to the funds of the corporation, and the time and manner of paying the same; and also for the management, disposition, and application of the property, estate, effects, and funds of the said corporation, for the purpose of carrying into effect the objects thereof, and for fixing the times and places of the meetings of the said corporation for the discussion of literary subjects and other purposes, for determining the nature of, and making by-laws for their library, for the manner of conducting the proceedings of their meetings, and touching the duties and conduct of the officers of the corporation, and for imposing penalties for breaking or violating any of the by-laws, and also such other matters as appertain to the business, end, and purposes for which the said corporation is by this act constituted, and for no other purposes whatsoever, *Provided always*, That such by-laws, and the penalties imposed for violating them, be not repugnant to the constitution and laws of the United States or of this State.

5. *And be it further enacted*, That when any member of the said corporation shall violate and break any of the by-laws so made as aforesaid, or shall become liable to any penalty imposed by any of the said by-laws, and shall neglect or refuse to pay the same, it shall and may be lawful in every such case for the said corporation to expel such member from the said corporation, *Provided always*, That no member shall be expelled otherwise than by the votes of at least three-fourths of all the members present at one of the stated meetings of the said corporation.

6. *And be it further enacted*, That every member expelled from the said corporation in the manner prescribed in the preceding section, shall thereafter be prevented from having or receiving any benefit, emolument, or advantage whatsoever from the funds, property, or estate of the said corporation; and that all payments and advances made by such member to the funds of the said corporation shall be forfeited to the same.

7. *And be it further enacted*, That this act shall be and remain in full force and virtue for the term of fifteen years, and no longer: *Provided nevertheless*, That in case the aforesaid society shall at any time divert from or appropriate their or any part of their funds to any purpose or purposes whatsoever other than those intended and contemplated by this act, and shall thereof be convicted by due course of law, that thenceforth the said corporation shall cease, and the estate, real and personal, whereof it may then be seized and possessed, shall vest in the people of this State. *And provided further*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent the Legislature, at any time in their discretion, within the period aforesaid, from altering or repealing this act.

8. *And be it further enacted*, That this act is hereby declared to be a public act, and that the same be construed in all courts and places favorably and benignly for every beneficial purpose therein contained.

This constitution seemed to have expired by nonuser, and was revived by act of the Legislature in 1818.

According to the *Academician* for October, 1818, at the annual election for officers, the following gentlemen were chosen for the year 1818:

President, ALBERT PICKET; *Vice-President*, JARED SLOCUM; *Treasurer*, WILLIAM FORREST; *Secretary*, RICHARD WIGGINS; *Standing Committee*, JOHN W. PICKET, J. HOXIE; *Corresponding Secretaries*, JOHN W. PICKET, AARON M. MERCHANT.

The President, Albert Picket, and T. T. Payne were appointed a committee to draw up a report for publication, detailing the objects of the Teachers' Society. This committee prepared a report, which was published in the *Academician* for October, 1818, and from which we make a few extracts, as throwing light on the condition and aims of the profession at that date:

The improvements in instruction which every day presents, have created a necessity for an association of professional men, by whom these improvements may be tested, embodied, and carried out into their practical applications. The perpetual progress of science, also, by adding to the objects of elementary instruction, requires a corresponding simplicity in the methods of communicating it, and calls for a combination of all the knowledge, ingenuity, and efforts of those who have made the business of education the occupation of their lives.

The aids that may be afforded in this pursuit to native invention and experience, are great and of easy acquisition: they are either such as develop principles in a simple and unbroken order, and accompany them with lucid demonstration, or such as follow out these principles to practical and useful results, and apply to them those mechanical facilities which fit them for the business of a school.

In making this allusion to the formation of a system, your Committee would not be understood to mean, that the members of the Society are to render themselves responsible to the pursuit of a concerted plan, and to receive the shackles of a method from the opinion of the majority. Nothing can be wider from the aim of an association which looks forward to the character to which we hope to entitle ourselves.

In the latter of these advantages the English excel; in the former, the systems of the French and the Germans are unquestionably superior. One of the earliest attempts, then, of this association, will be to embody into a system the excellencies of each, and to add to them whatever the intelligence and the observation of the American instructors may furnish.

The objects will simply be, by the aid of foreign correspondence, and communications with our sister states, to collect into a focus whatever information can be procured, and whatever improvements have been proposed on professional subjects; to offer them to the minds of the individual members of the Society; and after having passed through the prisms of their particular judgments, to let them be divided and appropriated as circumstances and disposition may determine. *As the intolerance of sect has been the foe of religion, so the bigotry of system would prove the bane of education.*

An object of primary importance in our plan will be to promote the success and diminish the fatigues of instruction by encouraging as far as possible a division of labor in our profession. An attempt will be made to give some gradation to our schools, with respect to the subjects of education they may embrace. In many of our institutions this has been partially accomplished by dividing the duties among associated instructors. This division has, as we believe, been attended with beneficial results wherever it has been attempted; and, indeed, the objects of elementary instruction multiply so fast upon our hands, that an expedient of this kind becomes not only useful, but essential; and it does not terminate in the comfort of the instructor, but produces incalculable benefits to society at large.

But the distribution of duties in the interior of schools is not all that we hope to effect. To create a succession of separate schools is an object of no less importance. The establishment of a high school, which should receive, after a preparatory examination, such of the pupils of our elementary schools as might

be intended for a collegiate course, will claim the serious attention of our society. The want of an intermediate institution of this nature has been experienced and confessed, and even attempted to be remedied by some of the strongest influence and highest talents of the community in which we live; but whether the circumstances under which this attempt was made were unpropitious, or the systems of elementary education were not sufficiently matured for it, or from any other causes for which we can not account, it did not meet with the success which it merited. The importance of such an institution, however, is unquestionable; the necessity of it is still felt; the aspect of things seems favorable to its commencement.

The Committee, after referring with strong expressions of anticipated success to the High School, which Dr. Griscom, "a professional gentleman of acknowledged competency and high reputation, who had retired from a life of successful instruction," was about to inaugurate after the plan of the High School at Edinburgh, set forth the benevolent purposes of the society:

Instances of men who have passed the best part of their lives in the business of instruction, who have worn out their whole strength in the labor which it imposes, and who have been left to drag out their old age in indigence are not rare among us. It is related of Anaxagoras, after he had devoted his existence to the discovery and dissemination of truth, and had numbered among his pupils the most distinguished men of the day, among whom was the powerful Pericles, that he was left to terminate his life by literal starvation. Pericles, feeling at that time the necessity of his counsels, was induced to inquire for him, and discovered him in the most emaciated and desolate condition. He conjured him to live, if not for his own sake, at least because he and his country had need of him. The strength of the old man just enabled him to admonish his pupil, that it was the duty of "those who needed a lamp, to take care that it should never be destitute of oil." Pericles is not singular in his liability to the charge of such ingratitude, nor is his the only age in which the lamps of science have expired for want of the means of nourishing their flame.

The last great purpose of the Teachers' Society is to vindicate for the occupation of its members "the name and character of a liberal profession."

It can not have escaped the notice of any observer of life—it certainly has not escaped the experience of any professional instructor, that the consideration in which his labors are generally held is far below their intrinsic dignity and the station they have a right to claim from their usefulness to society. This may result from many causes, which they can not, and from some which they can, remove. We have reason to hope much from the integrity and unanimity of efforts which this association is calculated to effect; from the improvement of character that the professional intelligence, which it is intended to disseminate, must produce; from the increased attention that prevails in our community on the subject of elementary education; and from the liberal and hearty acquiescence in our views which has been already shown by individuals eminent for their public spirit, as well as for their stations in society. These, as your committee would represent, are grounds enough for a rational expectation that the time is not far distant when the instructors of youth shall be welcomed as brethren by the members of the liberal professions. And why should they not? Setting aside all the examples that antiquity and the history of European literature supply, we find, even in our own country, that many of the very men who have occupied the teacher's desk, have been and are the oracles of our laws, the sages of our senate, and the leaders of our armies. There is nothing, then, in the nature of the duties of an instructor which can disqualify him for occupying an equal rank with men of the other liberal professions.

There are many other purposes of minor importance which time will develop, and which your committee do not consider to be the province of a preliminary report to embrace: They therefore, leave the subject in the hands of the society, confident that a zealous coöperation of its members in their common cause, will produce the most valuable results to themselves as individuals, and to the members of the community in which their duties are to be performed.

XI. EDUCATIONAL MISCELLANY AND INTELLIGENCE.

WILLIAM H. WELLS.

W. H. WELLS retired from the office of Superintendent of Public Schools of Chicago, and, avowedly, from all direct participation in school matters, on the 6th of July, 1864. The occasion was signalized by a gathering of the school officers and teachers of Chicago, which is thus described by the *Chicago Tribune*:

The exercises of the High School were closed at noon to admit the assemblage of the teachers in the High School building in the afternoon to listen to an address by the retiring Superintendent—W. H. Wells—whose resignation, recently tendered, was very unwillingly accepted by the Board. The teachers were anxious to have an opportunity of hearing his parting words of cheer and counsel, and of testifying, in something stronger than words, their high appreciation of his worth. The large room was filled. There were present the members of the present Board of Education, several gentlemen formerly members, and many others who have been prominent in the education of the rising generation in this and other cities. Nearly all the teachers in the public schools in the city were present. The occasion was one of deep interest.

The chair was taken by Levi B. Taft, the President of the Board of Education; he spoke as follows:

The Board of Education have called this meeting at the request of a large number of teachers, in order to give an opportunity to exchange final greetings with Mr. Wells, and to listen to some parting words from him, before his retirement from the office of Superintendent of our schools. I can assure you that the Board have never done an act with so much pain and reluctance as the acceptance of Mr. Wells' resignation. Every effort possible was made in order to induce Mr. Wells to withdraw his resignation, but his failing health compelled him to decline complying with our request. The most cordial relations have ever existed between Mr. Wells and the Board. The utmost harmony prevailed in all our actions. Mr. Wells devoted eight years of the best part of his life to the building up of our schools. His whole soul has been in this work. He has been untiring in his labors, and devoted all his time and energies to the schools. He has had the kind coöperation of our teachers in all his arduous efforts. Our schools are largely indebted to him for the high standard of excellence to which they have now attained. Mr. Wells will carry with him to his new vocation our best and kindest wishes for his success and happiness.

Mr. Wells, the Superintendent, then rose and addressed the assembly, as follows:

Gentlemen of the Board of Education, and fellow teachers:

If we were permitted to live only in the present we should lose half the enjoyment of living. In early years we live largely in the future; later in life we live more in the past. There are also special occasions when memories of the past come rushing thick upon us, and the leading events of many years pass vividly before the mind in the space of a single hour. I am sure I shall be pardoned if I say that I am in a retrospective mood to-day, and my thoughts turn irresistibly to the past. I remember, away back in the reign of Andrew Jackson, when most of those before me were not, and when Chicago was in pinafores, a tall youth of less than twenty winters, in the land of steady habits, in search of a district school. And when he had actually engaged to teach a winter school at ten dollars a month and "board around," and began to feel that he was crossing the line between boyhood and manhood, I well remember such heart-throbbings as were unknown to earlier or later years.

I remember also, with almost painful vividness, that opening morning when this young aspirant for didactic honors walked into an almost empty school-house, leaving his future pupils on both sides of the road—in the fields and on the trees, anywhere and everywhere, apparently unconscious that so important a personage had come among them. And I am in no danger of forgetting the difficulty with which the floor of the room and those long sloping desks were freed from nuts and nut shells, and other contraband articles, and the scattered children persuaded to leave their various pursuits and acknowledge allegiance to the newly inaugurated administration.

I remember those weeks of struggle between inexperience, and anxiety, and determination, and hope, strangely commingling on the one hand, and ignorance, and boy nature, and girl nature on the other. I remember how this young pedagogue, who had just begun to call himself a man, as soon as his school had left for the day, and the doors were finally closed, night after night forgot all his manhood, and sat and wept, until an almost insupportable burden of chagrin and mortification and discouragement had found relief. I remember how the button-holes of his coat which at the beginning of the school would barely reach the buttons, at the close of it would reach far beyond.

All these things, and volumes besides, of which these are but the index, I well remember, though most that has transpired since is lost in forgetfulness. Such was the beginning of an educational life which this week brings to a close.

Among the leading educators of the period to which I am carried by these reminiscences, were James G. Carter, George B. Emerson, S. R. Hall, Wm. C. Woodbridge, and Miss Z. P. Grant, of Massachusetts; T. H. Gallaudet, of Connecticut; Mrs. Emma Willard, of New York; William Russell, of Pennsylvania; and Albert, and John W. Pickett, of Ohio. Horace Mann and Henry Barnard were then entirely unknown in the educational world, and the President of our honorable Board of Education was then a school boy—at the head of his class, no doubt, but only a school boy.

The American Institute of Instruction, now the grand patriarch of all the educational associations of the country, was then one year old, and the Teachers' Seminary at Andover, under the care of S. R. Hall, had attained the same age. The educational literature which then formed a complete Teachers' Library consisted of Hall's Lectures on School Keeping, a single volume of Lectures before the American Institute of Instruction, four volumes of the American Journal of Education, edited by William Russell, and a single volume of the Annals of Education, edited by W. C. Woodbridge, together with two or three reprints of foreign works. To-day the teacher has his choice from a library of more than a thousand volumes.

I could not then have taught a public school in Chicago, for there was none. But Chicago had then, though unappreciated, a pecuniary foundation for the grandest system of city schools in the world. The section set apart for the support of schools was in the heart of the city, bounded by Madison street on the north, Twelfth street on the south, State street on the east, and Halsted on the west. In October, 1833, all but four of the one hundred and forty-two blocks of this section were sold at auction for \$38,865, on a credit of one, two, and three years. The remaining four blocks are now valued at \$600,000. The value of that portion which was sold is now estimated at about \$10,000,000.

The first public school in Chicago was taught in 1834, thirty years ago, in the First Presbyterian Church, on the west side of Clark street, between Lake and Randolph. The teacher was Miss Eliza Chappel, now the wife of Rev. Jeremiah Porter, who is well known in this city.

In 1839, a special act was passed by the Legislature in relation to the common schools of Chicago, which laid the foundation of the present school system.

The first Board of School Inspectors under the new organization was composed of William Jones, J. Y. Scammon, I. N. Arnold, N. H. Bolles, John Gray, J. H. Scott, and Hiram Huguenin. The first meeting of this Board was held in November, 1840, and William Jones was elected Chairman. It is at this date that the written records of the public schools commence.

In 1844, the first public school-house was erected, on Madison street, between State and Dearborn. It was regarded by many as altogether too large and expensive, and the Mayor elected the following year, recommended in his inaugu-

ral address, that the Council should either sell the house or convert it into an Insane Asylum. This is the building now occupied by the Dearborn school.

In 1854, the office of Superintendent of Public Schools was created, and Mr. John C. Dore assumed the duties of the office. The improvements introduced by Mr. Dore were thorough and extensive, and their salutary influence will long be felt in the schools.

When I entered upon the duties of my present position, on the 1st of June, 1856, the number of teachers employed in the public schools was 47. At the present time the number is 223, an increase of more than 400 per cent. In June, 1856, the number of pupils belonging to all the schools was 2,785. In June, of the present year the number was 12,653, being an increase of over 350 per cent.

The Chicago High School was organized soon after I came to the city, and its history to the present time has been a record of continued success. Freed from the trammels of prejudice that exists in many older cities, it was organized as a school for both sexes, and time has fully demonstrated that for Chicago, at least, this organization is wisest and best.

The marked success of the Normal Department is deserving of special mention, and I can not too strongly commend this branch of our system, to the fostering care of the Board of Education and the Principal of the High School. The training received in this department is peculiarly adapted to the wants of our own schools, and most of the graduates are now numbered among the best teachers of the city.

There is another department of our system to which I turn with peculiar pleasure. The largest portion of my time has been given to the Primary Schools. The improvements in primary instruction that have been made in this country during the last eight years have been greater than during the previous fifty years, and I trust we have not been behind our contemporaries in this respect.

In looking at the different branches of our system, the High School, the Grammar Schools, and the Primary Schools, I do not know which should now be regarded as the most successful. All the parts are working harmoniously together, and mutually aiding each other. There are many things yet to be done; many improvements yet to be made. If I had remained in the schools another year, there are two objects on which my heart was specially set, as ends for which I should labor with all the energy that I could bring to bear upon them. The first of these objects relates to the *discipline* of the schools. I believe our schools are as well disciplined as those of any other city. The discipline is as mild, as kindly, as effective. But I believe the element of *self-discipline* in our own schools, and in all schools, may yet be multiplied four-fold, and I more than believe that this increase of self-discipline on the part of the pupils will form an element of untold power in forming the habits and character of those who are soon to control the destinies of the country. The teacher who has the power of cultivating in his pupils the habit of self-discipline is worth two salaries to any school board; and no one can estimate the different effect upon the character of the child, between growing up with the habit of self-control, and growing up with the habit of depending upon the pressure of outward restraint for the daily regulation of his conduct. The teacher who does not now possess this power can in a greater or less degree cultivate it. Fellow-teachers, if there is any one sentiment which I would like to impress upon your minds more strongly than any other, as I take my leave of you and of the schools, it is this: that all school discipline which does not have for its ultimate object, self-discipline on the part of the pupils, is a failure. The second object to which I refer, relates to the use of our mother tongue. Great improvements have already been made in our own schools, and in other schools, in the study of English Grammar; but I have no hesitation in saying that greater improvements are yet to be made in this branch of instruction than in any other. English Grammar professes to teach the art of speaking and writing the English language correctly; and yet it is manifest to every observer that English Grammar as it is now generally taught, does not impart to the pupils, one twentieth part of the power which they actually acquired in the use of the English language. The time will never come when parsing and analysis will be dispensed with, but the time will surely come when instruction in the

art of speaking will consist mainly in lessons which embrace *actual speaking*; in exercises designed to cultivate the art of conversation, of narration, and other forms of speech, by constant and careful practice in the use of these forms; when parsing and analysis will find their appropriate place as collateral aids in connection with the daily living exercises in the use of the English tongue. I have not time here to follow this subject out into details, but I have the satisfaction of knowing that the members of the Board, and the teachers who have given special thought to the matter, agree with me in the views which I have advanced, and I believe that the improvements in this direction which have already been commenced will be continued and increased, till one half of the time which is now consumed in the study of English Grammar will furnish twice the fruit which we now reap.

No portion of my life has been happier than that which I have spent in the schools of Chicago. I do not remember an instance in which I have recommended a measure for the improvement of the schools that has not received the full and ready support of the Board of Education, and the hearty coöperation of the teachers. When I desired to elaborate a graded course of study for the schools, the teachers with one accord gave me their aid in its preparation; the Board of Education adopted it without a discussion; and again the teachers, with labors materially increased, gave their hearty coöperation in making it a success. The cordiality with which my visits to the schools have ever been welcomed, will find an abiding place among the sweetest memories of my life. A thousand tokens of kindness and of confidence have lightened my labors and gladdened my heart from the day on which I entered the schools till the present time; and for all of them, I desire to return to the Board of Education, and to the teachers, my sincerest thanks.

I have never known a more competent, and laborious, and successful body of teachers than that which I meet to-day, in these intimate and endearing relations for the last time. I have the satisfaction of knowing that you are also appreciated by the Board of Education, and I am confident they will soon afford you substantial evidence that they do not intend to leave your services unrewarded.

The change I am about to make is by far the greatest change of my life. It is a deliberate, long considered, and final decision; and I can not but recognize the hand of Providence in presenting so favorable an opening, just at the time it was no longer safe for me to continue the labors and cares of my present office. With the urgent demands of health that I should leave these duties, and an attractive field of labor inviting in another direction, I could not hesitate.

If my purpose had been only half formed, the kind offer of a six months' vacation, with a continuance of salary, might have inclined me to resume these pleasing labors. I may also mention here that I have an old school-mate and friend in Boston, who long years ago kindly commended me for choosing the educational field, but himself persistently turned to commercial pursuits. As time passed on, I still continued to receive his commendation and encouragement, but he has always managed somehow to live in a large house, while I lived in a small one. Again, we both felt a strong desire to visit the old world. He had the means of gratifying his desire, and spent a year amid the classic and hallowed associations of Greece, and Rome, and Egypt, and the Holy Land, while I was compelled to remain at home. And now, singularly enough, just at the time when I have this generous offer of six months' rest, my good friend Hardy, of Boston, sends me an invitation to take a free passage to the Mediterranean in one of his ships. The offer is a tempting one; the two together are very tempting. But I can not be mistaken in respect to the path of duty.

My educational life has already covered a period nearly equal to the average life of man, and I must now lay it down, and turn to pursuits widely different, but I trust not wholly uncongenial. And now, honored gentlemen of the Board of Education, and dear fellow-teachers, as co-laborers we part. May every blessing attend you in your continued efforts to elevate and improve the public schools, and a generation of children be made wiser and better by your self-sacrificing labors.

"Farewell! a word that must be and hath been,
A sound that makes us linger—yet farewell!"

The meeting of the Board was now dissolved, and Mr. Taft left the Chair, which was taken by J. J. Noble, Principal of the Haven School. A meeting of the teachers was organized, and Mr. S. H. White, as Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, submitted the following, signed by S. H. White, J. R. Dewey, Jennie E. McLaren, M. Louise Wilson, and Mary Noble. They were unanimously adopted:

WHEREAS, Mr. William H. Wells, Superintendent of the Public Schools of this city, has resigned the position which he has so long successfully filled,

Therefore, Resolved, That we, the teachers in said schools, deeply regret such action on his part, especially as it was made necessary by a proper regard to his health, now impaired by close application to his arduous duties.

Resolved, That in his resignation the Public Schools of this city have lost the services of one to whose untiring labors in promoting their interests they are largely indebted for their past successes and present prosperous condition; and that the cause of popular education has lost one of its ablest and most successful laborers in the promotion of its interests.

Resolved, That his uniform kindness and encouragement have contributed very greatly to the pleasure, as well as the success of the teachers in the Public Schools; that his many very excellent qualities of mind and heart have won for him an affectionate regard, and that his devotion and zeal in the duties of his office furnish an example worthy of imitation by all.

Resolved, That our kind remembrances and best wishes attend Mr. Wells in his new vocation.

Mr. George Howland, Principal of the High School, then rose and advanced in front of Mr. Wells. He bore in his hand a magnificent gold watch—valued at \$400—finished in the highest style of art. Mr. Howland addressed the retiring Superintendent as follows:

Mr. Superintendent:—The resolutions that have just been read and adopted seem to require one thing more, and the pleasing duty has been assigned to me, in behalf of the teachers of Chicago, of presenting to you, sir, a visible token of the esteem and kind regard which they express.

In withdrawing from the position which you have so long honored, you are happy in leaving behind you, in the prosperous condition of the schools of our city, a living witness of the faithfulness and success of your labors, and we wish you to take with you to your new vocation, something to remind you of the appreciation with which you have been received by us, who have aided you in giving them efficiency. By your enlightened and comprehensive views, you, sir, have won golden opinions from all true friends of popular education, and it seems but fitting that these opinions should be reflected in our gift. The welfare of our schools has long lain near your heart, and there, too, we wish the remembrance of us to be borne. We have had our *times* subjected to your control, and been under your careful care and supervision, and with a feeling of sweet revenge, perhaps, we have desired to have the tables turned, and see how you would like to have your *time* directed by us, and with what spirit you would bear our *watch*; and be assured, sir, that as often as it shall tell you of us, it will tell also of many a heart among the donors which will ever beat no less true than itself with respect and esteem for you.

The recipient made the following reply in acknowledgement of the literary and horological testimonials presented:

Emotion does not always find relief in utterance. I have no language to express the gratitude I feel for these kind expressions of confidence and esteem, and for this munificent token of sympathy and affection. I have not been in constant communion with you during the last eight years, without making this parting hour one of intense feeling—the strongest of which my nature is capable.

There are times when I love to wander back to childhood's hours, and live over again those early days, when the trials and disappointments of life had not taught me the lessons of sadness which I have since learned. There are

times when, starting from those bright and halcyon days, I love to roam along the pathway of life, culling only the choicest fruits and flowers, and binding them in one rich garland of delighted existence. If my life is spared, and I may hope in years to come to enjoy a retrospective view of all that is bright and attractive in the past, then will this faithful monitor, while it measures the moments as they glide swiftly by, tell also of the many happy hours we have spent together; and then will the sweet savor of these pleasant memories shed its choicest perfumes all around.

For all these manifestations of kind regard, may you receive a rich reward in your own hearts; and may your future lives be as peaceful and happy as they are useful and honored.

This terminated the formal exercises; even more affecting scenes followed. The members of the Board, teachers, and other friends assembled around Mr. Wells and took their leave of him. It was an occasion which will be borne on the memories of all present, through many years of future labor.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

The Superintendent of Public Schools in Boston (J. D. Philbrick) in his Semi-annual Report for March, 1864, remarks:

Attendance is one of the prime elements in determining the merit of a school or of a system of schools, and is therefore a subject which should ever be kept prominent in our school reports. The two most important items of information in respect to attendance are, first, the average number of pupils belonging to the schools as compared with the whole number of pupils of the legal school age; and, secondly, the average daily attendance of pupils as compared with the number belonging.

The per cent. of attendance, as at present reported, is radically defective, and is calculated to do injustice to the teachers, while it does not afford reliable data for drawing conclusions as to the relative merit of the different schools. The defect is occasioned by want of uniformity in respect to the practice of discharging pupils. No rules on this subject having been prescribed by the Board, each teacher is left to his own judgment in regard to it.

The following rules, drawn up by Mr. Wells, of Chicago, have been approved by the most prominent school officers in the country:

RULES RELATING TO SCHOOL MEMBERSHIP.

1. Whenever a teacher has satisfactory evidence that a pupil has left school without the intention of returning, such pupil's name shall forthwith be struck from the rolls; but any absences recorded against the name of the pupil before the teacher receives this notice, shall be allowed to remain, and in making up the attendance averages, such absences shall be regarded the same as any other absences.

2. When a pupil is **SUSPENDED** from school by any of the rules of the School Board, whether for absence or for any other cause, his name shall be stricken from the rolls.

3. When a pupil is absent from school more than five consecutive school days, for sickness or for any other cause, his name shall be stricken from the roll at the end of the five days, and the absences shall in all cases be recorded while the name remains on the roll; but this rule shall not operate to prevent the suspension of a pupil under Rule 2, for a less number of absences, in which case his name will of course be stricken from the roll.

4. For the purposes contemplated in the foregoing Rules, any pupil shall be considered absent whose attendance at school shall not continue for at least one-half of the regular school session of the half-day.

5. In noting the absences of pupils, the short vacations of Fall, Winter, and Spring shall be disregarded, and pupils who are not present on the first half-day of a term after either of these vacations shall be marked as absent, the same as if Saturday and Sunday were the only intervening days.

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